The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 25, 1898.

The Week.

The fact that Manila was captured by our forces in fight after it had been surrendered to us by the terms of the protocol with Spain, has given a new impetus to the demand for occupation and retention of the whole Philippine group. There is no logic in this kind of reasoning. We cannot be more in possession of Manila after the battle than we were before, because Spain had already handed it to us. Moreover, as we are dealing with a conquered enemy in any case—one who has no navy and no means of creating one—it rests with us to say whether we shall take the Philippines or not, quite irrespective of the fighting that took place after the protocol was signed. So the question of retention or non-retention of the islands is not affected in any way whatever by the battle of Manila. That was a regrettable circumstance. All the maiming and killing and wasting of property were a dead loss to the United States and to the world, due to the want of cable communication between the hostile forces and their respective governments. If the element of generosity is allowed to enter into transactions of this nature we might well consider that we are dealing with a fallen foe, with one far inferior to us in strength, and with a country that discovered America, and in one sense gave us the home that we now enjoy. It may be, and probably is, true that Spain will be better off without the Philippines than with them, but that is equally true of ourselves.

The Cuban insurgent leaders say they must wait to get orders from their own provisional Government before deciding what to do. If anybody can find their President and Cabinet and receive instructions to "cease firing" (the order which the valiant Irish colonel gave when informed that the ammunition was exhausted), the war will be over. But our Government, meanwhile, has issued orders to Gen. Lawton declaring that the war is over, and that the Cuban insurgents and everybody else must recognize "the cessation of hostilities." Interference from any quarter, say Gen. Lawton's instructions from Washington, "will not be permitted." "Any quarter" means, of course, the Cuban insurgents. So if they propose to do any more fighting, it will have to be with the United States.

Archbishop Ireland, who has been talking with Mr. McKinley, says that there will be no religious difficulty whatever in connection with "the Church question in our new possessions." The American principles of church and state independent of each other will be applied, and everything will be lovely. But there was never any thought of difficulty on the score of "principles"; it is in practice that the rub comes, and the Archbishop himself shows in one sentence just where it will come. "Certain people," he says, "who talk of those territories as fields for missionary efforts from the United States, do not know what they are talking about." You might as well send missionaries to Washington, says the Archbishop, as to Santiago or San Juan (he discreetly says nothing about Manila). This will give food for thought to such Protestant missionary societies as have already met to parcel out "our new possessions." It will be a surprise to them that they did not know what they were talking about.

The actual raising of our flag over the Hawaiian Islands was not, writes the Honolulu correspondent of the *Sun*, "as joyous an occasion as far-off America may imagine." The natives disappeared from the streets, not being able to bear the sight of their own flag hauled down and their "nationality snuffed out like a spent candle." There was no music, for the native band had thrown away their instruments and would not play. There was as little speech-making as possible, and only dismal attempts at cheering. Admiral Miller, in charge of the ceremonies, perceived that the whole thing was intensely distasteful to the natives, and had the good sense to cut it short. "It was but another roll of the Juggernaut car in which the lordly Anglo-Saxon rides to his dream of universal empire." "When it was over, women who wore the American emblem wiped their eyes, and men who have been strong for annexation said, with a throb in the throat, 'How sad it was!'" We are content to take this account of accomplished Hawaiian annexation from its most flamboyant and fleering advocate. The *Sun* has all along laughed in its sleeve at the way the *Independent* and other religious papers have been taken in by its pretences of humanity and missionary zeal in this Hawaiian business, and now very properly turns on them to show that what they have been helping on is the roll of our Juggernaut car over a helpless race.

Two Republican State conventions were held on Wednesday week—one in the North and the other in the South; and the student of public sentiment looks to the platforms adopted in Wisconsin and Tennessee for indications as to the drift of popular feeling on the new issue of outside possessions for the United States. So far as the Western State is concerned, no light whatever is cast upon this question by the resolutions framed in Milwaukee, because they are entirely silent regarding the whole subject of annexation, undoubtedly out of deference to Senator Spooner, who opposed the acquisition of Hawaii and is understood to doubt the wisdom of taking the Philippines. The Tennessee Republicans were not restrained by any such consideration, and adopted this deliverance:

> "We believe in an extension of trade and commerce with foreign countries. Believing that trade follows the flag, we declare in favor of the annexation of Porto Rico and all the West India Islands, the ultimate annexation of Cuba by the free consent of the people of the island, and such control of the Philippines and other islands as shall secure to the United States the trade and commerce of those islands and good government of their people."

The resolutions adopted by the Saratoga conference on foreign policy yield a notable sign of the times. When the conference was called, it was thought to be intended as a protest against colonial acquisitions, but this appears to have been a mistake. Free discussion on both sides was invited. The speeches against "imperialism" were more numerous and, we think, weightier than those in favor of it, yet the resolutions, which were unanimously adopted, practically surrender the whole case to the expansionists. We say this because when you affirm that "we should not be justified in returning the conquered islands to the misrule and oppression from which we have relieved them," and that "the rescued and liberated people . . . are in a sense temporarily the wards of the conquering nation," you practically invite and endorse the whole colonial policy. Not to return the islands is to keep them, down to the smallest and most distant, and to treat their inhabitants as "wards" is to govern them according to *our* idea, not their own, of what is for their own best good. And colonial wards are a fearful time coming of age. The Filipinos have been three hundred years at it, and are still only infants in arms. It is certain they will not reach full age in the lifetime of any of the gentlemen who drafted the Saratoga resolutions. So we say that these resolves are most eloquent of the way the nation is tending. It is already late to ask if we shall have colonies; we have them already, and the only thing to discuss is how best to govern them.

Sir Charles Dilke has a brief article in the *Pall Mall Magazine* on "An Anglo-

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American Alliance," in which he makes one or two very sensible remarks. He says it is still necessary to point out, as it has been any time since 1867, that "fair relations with Ireland" on the part of England are essential to any possible alliance with the United States. Sir Charles doubts very much if the present good feeling for England in this country is proof against "political temptation," and he sees clearly that any fresh Irish outbreak would present that temptation in its most acute form. On the other hand, the establishment of a protective tariff in our colonies that are to be, would turn British complacency into British irritation. Yet he thinks that neither of these dangers will be fallen into, and that while there will be no permanent alliance (of which he justly says there is no sign), there will probably be "common action" in securing certain ends of human and commercial liberty; and this is far better than a formal alliance for military purposes.

Attention is now drawn to the negotiations with Canada respecting the Bering Sea question, the Alaskan boundary, the transportation-in-bond question, and other matters that have been left in a ragged state for several years. There is every reason to believe that an agreement will be reached upon all the matters in dispute. There is some reason to think that steps may be taken to relax the tariff on both sides of the line. This ought not to be difficult. Canada is anxious to secure the free entry of certain agricultural products which really do not compete with our own farmers. Of what use, for example, is a tariff on Canadian wheat when the price of both Canadian and American wheat is fixed in foreign markets? The competition takes place in Liverpool and is unaffected by the United States tariff. It would, however, be a convenience to the Canadian producer to have the choice of the American or the English market to sell in. What is the use of a duty on Canadian barley, in the production of which Canada has so great advantage of soil and climate that our brewers must buy it at any cost? What advantage is it to us to put taxes on hay, fresh milk, and fresh eggs? Then there is the matter of lumber. Why should we offer a premium for the destruction of our few remaining forests of white pine, and put an unnecessary tax on the Western farmer and the Eastern mechanic for the houses they live in? On the other hand, have we not an interest in preventing the imposition of a surtax of 25 per cent. on our manufactured goods in the Canadian market?

These are not the only questions in issue. The Boards of Trade of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have petitioned the Canadian members of the conference to offer access to their inshore fisheries in exchange for equal access to the markets of Cuba and Porto Rico. This is something that our Commissioners ought to agree to forthwith. It is so much clear gain. Unless we are going to follow the example of Spain by taxing our new colonies for the benefit of our own treasury or our own producers, of which we have heard no hint in any quarter, we shall grant this request, not only to Canada, but to every other country. But since Canada does not wish to take any risk in the premises, she offers a valuable concession to our fishermen. Under existing law our fishermen are not allowed to fish within the territorial waters, *i. e.*, within three miles of the shore, nor can they enter the ports of Canada except for shelter or to obtain wood and water. It is said that the fishermen of Canada will oppose the granting of this privilege, but if it is really insisted upon by the mercantile class their opposition will be ineffectual.

One consequence of the severe examination to which the volunteers were subjected before enlistment should be the future relief of the pension rolls. It is satisfactory to see that the Government proposes to supplement this entrance examination with a final one, and to keep an official record of the physical condition of every soldier at the time of his discharge from the service. According to a statement made by Gen. Corbin, this examination "will reveal whether they were wounded, sprained, hearing impaired, or sight injured, and if they have suffered any disability that they know of or the physicians can find. This is to be put down in black and white, and the soldier is to sign it if he knows of no objections to it." Such a regulation as this is obviously for the advantage of honest soldiers, as it will enable them to establish their claims to relief if they have any valid ones, and it should afford some protection to the people of the country against frauds on the pension list. Unfortunately, the chief danger of the country comes from Congress, and the ordinary Congressman in search of supporters will be sure to favor liberal pensions to every soldier who enlisted in this war, whether his military service impaired his health or not.

The first man to reap political profit from the war is Gen. "Joe" Wheeler of Alabama. He has represented his district in Congress so long that other politicians have for some time been inclined to think that he has "had enough," and as long ago as last February one of them, Samuel Blackwell, announced his candidacy for the Democratic nomination. After the war broke out and Gen. Wheeler entered the army, Mr. Blackwell held that military duties would keep the veteran out of Congress, and so he continued his own candidacy. But the war is already over, and Gen. Wheeler has made it known that he wants to return to the House. The people of his district are so ready to grant his request that all his rivals see the folly of making any contest. Mr. Blackwell has retired from the race in a letter to the Democrats of the district, in which he says: "I think I know the sentiment of the people, and since Gen. Wheeler's announcement, asking reëlection, I feel sure that no man can defeat this hero of two wars." He accordingly moves that his rival's nomination "be made unanimous." Both the Republicans and the Populists of the district are represented to be very ready to second this motion, and the prospect is that Gen. Wheeler will be the only candidate next November. There are also indications that Gen. Wheeler will be a strong candidate for the United States Senate, to succeed Morgan when the latter's term expires.

Mr. Jenks, the Democratic candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania, is trying to make his campaign on State issues, but he cannot succeed, for two reasons. In the first place, there is too general and strong a suspicion that he is really a Democratic ally of the Quay machine for him to overcome by any disclaimer. In the second place, as one Democrat of prominence and ability who championed the cause of free silver on the stump during the Bryan campaign, he is fatally handicapped in a sound-money State. No independent voter can support a silverite for Governor of Pennsylvania, and it was for this reason that the Quay machine used all its influence to secure the nomination of Jenks, instead of a Democrat like Judge Gordon, whose candidacy would not have involved the issue of free coinage. As things now stand, there is but one course for the independent voter—to support Dr. Swallow, the "Thou shalt not steal" candidate. As regards the Legislature, the Independents should throw their strength everywhere against the Quay candidates in whatever may seem the most effective manner in any district. The Business Men's League has decided to prosecute an aggressive campaign for the control of the Legislature against Quayism, and it is announced that Mr. Wanamaker will take the stump in every district in support of an intelligent, honest, economical General Assembly. The Legislature is really more important than the governorship this time, because it is the former which will decide whether Quay shall remain boss of the State through reëlection to the Senate. There should be a hearty union of the decent forces against the machine throughout the State. With such a union Quay can be beaten.

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While the excess in the value of exports from the United States over that of imports was in July less than in some previous months, it was larger for the month of July than ever before. The result was caused by the continued decline in the value of imports and the continued advance in that of exports. The value of imports was scarcely over $50,000,000, the smallest for the calendar year. It is to be borne in mind that these figures do not include the movements of the precious metals, which amount for the seven months past to a net export of $13,558,000 of silver and a net import of $87,487,000 of gold. Allowing for these items, there still remains a balance for the seven months in favor of the United States of $243,000,000. If we go back six months into 1897, making the same allowances, the favorable balance for the last thirteen months would be $557,000,000. During the coming months our great staples will swell our exports enormously, so that even if our imports should increase largely, the balance would be likely to continue to be heavily in our favor. By next August this balance for two years may amount to $1,000,000,000, and at the same time both our production and our importation of gold will have been very great. There has never been an opportunity so favorable for reforming the currency, and if it should be neglected, it would be unreasonable to hope for a similar one. Nothing is more certain than that after a period of prosperity there will come a time of adversity, and, with the enlarged expenses of our imperial policy and the consequent increased taxation, we must be prepared for the demand that the Government shall issue more money to relieve the hard times. If we can get the Government out of the business of issuing money altogether, it will make it a good deal easier to resist inflation than it has been in the past.

The address delivered by Mr. Hendrix before the American Bankers' Association at its meeting at Denver is a very striking review of the progress of the nation. Denver was a good place for this meeting. Two years ago it was almost as much as a man's life was worth in Colorado to question the dogma that the only salvation of the State was to be found in the free coinage of silver. Free coinage of silver has been overwhelmingly defeated, and now Denver finds itself enjoying the greatest degree of prosperity which it has ever known. Its inhabitants ought to be disposed, under these circumstances, to admit that their dogma is erroneous and to listen to Mr. Hendrix with receptive minds. He tells them that during the first six months of 1898 the bank clearings were larger than ever before, the deposits greater, and prices advancing. The Government had ceased to issue paper money, but somehow the total money circulation increased almost $200,000,000, and the per-capita circulation was more than two dollars greater for 75,000,000 people. At the same time the amount of freight carried by the railroads was larger than ever before, and whereas 20 per cent. of the railroad mileage was in receivers' hands in 1894, only 5 per cent. is now so held. What should particularly impress the people of Colorado is the fact that their State now produces more gold than any other, and that its gold product this year will probably exceed in value the silver produced in 1890, the year when the Sherman law was passed. In fact, the annual yield of the gold mines of the earth is now greater than that of the gold and silver mines together ten years ago.

Taking up the business of banking, Mr. Hendrix mentions a number of facts that should modify the hostility to bankers that has been so loudly declared in some parts of the West and South. For one thing the profits of banks are declining. Their net earnings, on capital and surplus, are not more than 6 per cent. The national banks earned in the year 1896-'97 only 5.4 per cent. Their average earnings for twenty-eight years have been only 7.8 per cent., and out of the 5,000 banks organized under the national banking act over a thousand have withdrawn because their profits were insufficient. Moreover, the "money power" of the banks is not the power of a few, but of a multitude. The number of depositors runs into the millions, and the national banks alone are owned by 281,000 stockholders, of whom about 102,000 are women, while over 60 per cent. of them own ten shares or less. As Mr. Hendrix shows, the banking business is so interwoven with all the business of the country that it is impossible for it to prosper except with general prosperity, and the importance of reforming the currency is forcibly stated.

As if to emphasize the failure of the conference for the abolition of sugar bounties, the French Government has decreed that after September 1 of the present year the law of 1897 shall be enforced. Under this law a bounty will be granted on exports of refined sugars, both French and colonial, ranging from 2.42 to 3.11 francs per 100 kilograms. With this additional bounty given to his competitors, the West Indian planter will hardly be consoled by Mr. Chamberlain's state-aided sugar works, and the British Government will find that in a war of bounties there is no stopping-place. It is just as easy for the French Government to increase its bounty as it is for the British; or, rather, it is a good deal easier, because it is more consistent. In this connection we may notice the figures presented by the French Ministry of Agriculture in a bulletin entitled "Sur le régime des Sucres," which contains much interesting information concerning the sugar industry, as well as an account of the proceedings at the recent congress and a summary of the sugar legislation of the principal governments. An examination of these figures shows how directly and how extensively British consumers have been benefited by the export bounties laid by foreign countries. The annual imports of raw cane-sugar into the United Kingdom have fallen from about 12,000,000 cwt. in 1883 to less than 8,000,000 in 1897, and those of refined cane-sugar have practically ceased. The imports of raw beet-sugar have remained nearly stationary, but those of the refined article have risen from 3,144,000 to about 15,000,000 cwt. Thus the imports of beet-sugar, raw and refined, which may be regarded as identical with "bounty-fed" sugar, from being thirteen years ago equal in amount to those of cane-sugar, have become three times as large. But in spite of bounties, the exports of sugar refined in the United Kingdom have been maintained at about the same figure for the last dozen years. During this period the consumption of refined sugar has increased five fold, while the price has fallen more than one-half. The prospects of still cheaper sugar under the influence of French export bounties may be faced with equanimity by some 40,000,000 of people in the British Islands, even if some planters in Jamaica and Barbados are driven out of business.

Things have come to such a pass in France that if anybody says "justice," he is suspected of a desire to subvert the Government. The *Siècle* reports an extraordinary occurrence in connection with the recent official celebration of the Michelet centenary. An ode written for the occasion by M. Maurice Bouchor was objected to by the Minister of Public Instruction because the poet had been imprudent enough to put into it the word justice. In one of the stanzas he had invoked the shades of Michelet, Hugo, and Quinet to recall to the minds of Frenchmen and to the world that "France is the champion of right." M. Brisson saw at once that this would never do. The poet might as well have said outright that he thought Dreyfus illegally convicted, and what would become of society then? So he sent for M. Bouchor and labored with him for an hour in the attempt to get him to withdraw two of his stanzas. But the poet concluded to withdraw the whole of his poem. "I see," he said, "that I am not made to sing at official ceremonies." And he declared that, under the circumstances, he was not sorry to have no part in a glorification of Michelet by the existing Government of France. "The irony of it was too cruel."

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THE OPPORTUNITY OF OUR POLITICIANS.

There is no doubt a general feeling that, for good or ill, the country is committed to some kind of colonial policy. A correspondent maintains in effect that the government which this country is to give the islands taken from Spain is, like the quality of mercy, twice blessed. It is not only to bless the Cubans and the Filipinos, but also the people of the United States. In fact, it is because it is to promote the welfare of our own country that our correspondent favors it, and the benefit to subject peoples is a subordinate consideration.

We are compelled to say, however, that our correspondent begs the question. He says that "we, as an organized community," are capable of governing colonies as well as or better than any other nation. To hold any other opinion is, in his view, to reflect in a perfectly unjustifiable way on the moral and intellectual character of Americans. But the fact that our correspondent entertains strong convictions of this character is not an argument in favor of their truth or wisdom that will be generally admitted to be conclusive. It may be significant of the extent to which such convictions prevail, and of the class of people who hold them, but it is not a valid argument as to the existence of the capacity in question. The only valid arguments on such a point are of an historical nature, and none are produced.

It may be observed that it is in itself irrelevant whether our Government can administer colonies better than other governments do. It would be hard to administer them worse than Spain, or Italy, or perhaps even than France. It might be possible to administer them very well, and yet with injurious results to our own interests. But it is of the utmost importance to remember that it is the "organized community" that will carry on the administration. In other words, it will be the President and Congress, or the members of the dominant party in Congress. When people talk of the capabilities and achievements of the American people, what they really have in mind is the results attained by private enterprise and individual talent. "Practical things," says our correspondent, "are precisely what Americans have hitherto accomplished more easily and more ably than the people of any other nation," and it is enough for him to revert to the record of what our people have done in the past to convince him of their certain success in the future. But if he will revert to the record of what Congress has done in the past and is doing now, he will find it very difficult to make out a case for the distinguished ability of that body to do anything practical at all. He must be acquainted with the history of our currency legislation, and can hardly fail to recognize that the practical men of the country have pleaded and struggled with the politicians in Congress to allow the country a chance to prosper, and have pleaded and struggled in vain. He should be familiar with the dealings of our Government with its Indian wards, to which we have several times referred, but we cannot believe that he either admires or defends these dealings. He reads daily of the lynching of negroes in the Southern States without interference on the part of the "organized community," and why should he expect a better state of affairs in such a country as Cuba, the vile character of whose inhabitants our newspapers are now denouncing? And what has he to say about the way we manage our municipal affairs?

It is said that the war has had one benefit, in throwing into the background several noxious questions of domestic policy. The war was openly advocated on that ground by some Republican politicians at the outset, but they were quickly advised that it was not expedient to dwell on that result, but to accept it with silent gratitude. No doubt it is a relief to have the tiresome silver clamor cease, but it would have been better to fight the battle through and end it finally by reforming the currency system. It is not only "noxious questions of domestic policy" that are thrown into the background by war, but reforms of every kind. The notion that we are about to place in public office men of superior character can hardly be described otherwise than as childish. "The right men are ready to come to the front when the people call upon them." They have been ready before, but the people have not called upon them, and what sign is there of such a call? Is it to be observed in Pennsylvania, or in Ohio, or in New York? Was it observable in Washington when the positions in our new army were filled?

The question whether our correspondent and those who agree with him are to enroll themselves among the advocates of imperialism is not an important one. The result will be the same by whatever name it is called—the establishment of something resembling the Roman proconsular government over subject races. To hold such government compatible with the principles laid down in the Declaration of Independence is a contradiction in terms. That Declaration is the foundation of popular government; the proconsular system is the development of aristocratic government. It may be a very good system, and when it is administered by a trained and singularly enlightened aristocracy, like that of England, it may be as good for the governors as for the governed, although we doubt it. Mr. John Morley, we believe, has pointed out that, as England grows democratic, her policy of holding other peoples in subjection must be abandoned. But such a system administered by our Senate could not be a good system for anybody except the proconsuls and their favorites. Our Senate would follow the Roman precedent, and give the lucrative commissions that will immediately spring into existence to ex-Senators and ex-Representatives and other people having political influence. If any patriotic American feels his blood boil at having such things said of his country, let him sit down calmly and think what Senator Quay and Senator Platt will do when the new colonial offices are to be filled.

WARNINGS OF EXPERIENCE.

The Galveston *News*, which is an enthusiastic advocate of the policy of imperialism, takes issue with the contention that we have not dealt with inferior races in a magnanimous way. It maintains in the first place that it is not wrong to assume responsibilities which our Government, judging from its past, is not fitted to discharge. It holds that we should have faith in the American Government, even if it is likely to fail. Unless we have this faith, it argues, we shall "put a limit on our struggling and expanding natural energies and resources," and create "self-imposed obstacles in taking our proper place in the evolution of civilization and the world's destined advancement." No doubt confidence is important to success. It is seldom wise for any one to undertake an enterprise in which he expects to fail. But what is far more important to success is that this confidence should rest on rational grounds, that our faith should be a reasoned faith. And in attaining such faith in whatever concerns human action, we know of no guide but experience. We can predict the conduct of men in the future only by observing what their conduct has been in the past. This is the fundamental principle of political science because it is the fundamental principle of all science. Unless we assume the course of nature to be uniform, we can attain no certain knowledge; and unless we assumed that human beings would act in the future as they have acted under similar conditions in the past, we could not frame a single measure of legislation.

As if not willing to rest the cause of imperialism on unreasoning faith alone, the Galveston *News* boldly asserts that our Government has been so successful in dealing with inferior races as to make it probable that it will succeed in further attempts in this direction. We are very glad to have this position so plainly stated, because it greatly simplifies the issue. It does away with a great deal of cant, which has prevailed during this war to such an extent as to make some of our "religious" papers very sad reading to many people who would like to keep the Christian religion pure and undefiled. The Galveston *News* flatly as-

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serts as an historical fact that our Government has dealt about as well with the Indians "as they could be dealt with without giving up the country to them and their savage propensities. They have been crushed and eliminated only so far as they have irreconcilably opposed the march of civilization." Somewhat to our surprise, the Galveston *News* refers to the "negro problem" as an historic fact of the same character, and claims that it has neither been shirked nor allowed to get past solution. And we may fairly presume that our treatment of the Chinese would also meet with the approval of this journal.

We are, therefore, justified in assuming that the "higher civilizing force" of our Government in carrying out a colonial policy will satisfy the imperialists if it takes the same course as it has taken in this country. We regard this as probable, and we should be very glad to have the imperial party in general take this position. But it is precisely because we anticipate such a policy that we strenuously oppose it. We should consider it very deplorable to have the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands treated as our Indians have been treated, to have the people of Cuba ruled as the negroes in the Southern States are ruled, and to have Asiatic peoples forbidden to emigrate to the islands which we annex in the Pacific Ocean. One of our missionaries to Japan pleaded most earnestly for the annexation of Hawaii to the United States, because if it were not annexed the Japanese would emigrate to it in large numbers. It is scarcely pretended that American laborers will emigrate thither, and it might be thought a humane proceeding to allow the crowded Japanese to go where they could find room, since we did not need the room ourselves. But if they are allowed to go to Hawaii now, it is safe to say that they will not be allowed the right of self-government.

As to the "historical facts" of the Galveston *News*, we need hardly say that we cannot admit their existence. The evidence is conclusive that our treatment of the Indians has been marked with corruption, with treachery, and with cruelty. We cannot summarize this evidence, but we should like to see our imperialists take up the cases of the Cherokees and the Seminoles, for instance, and defend the treatment which they have received. It is tolerably well known that the Quakers managed to get along with the Indians without bloodshed, and it requires much hardihood to deny that most of the outbreaks by the Indians have been occasioned by the unbearable oppression of the whites. It may be added that no department of the federal Government has been so corrupt as that which has been charged with the care of our Indian wards. If this department has done about as well as it could with the Indians, what will be the probable purity of a department of the Philippines?

Concerning the negro problem, the word "shirked" describes the situation accurately. The Constitution of the United States provides that negroes shall have the same rights as white citizens. The Constitutions of a number of the Southern States provide, in effect, that they shall not have the same rights. Where the State Constitutions do not accomplish this result, it is accomplished in many cases by fraud. in many cases by violence. What the right of trial by jury amounts to for negroes may be learned by taking up a daily paper. It must be a rare day which does not record the putting to death of one or more negroes by mob violence—violence for which the law seems to provide no redress. We do not regard this kind of civilization as admirable, and as something that we ought to extend to other communities. But it is this boon that our imperialists propose to grant to Cuba, or else to impose a military despotism. We cannot believe it to be our divine mission to engage in such work as this. On the contrary, it appears to us the plain call of duty to remedy our own scandalous abuses rather than to extend the system under which they have arisen to other peoples.

A CAMPAIGN WITHOUT NATIONAL ISSUES.

We are now within a few weeks of the election of a new Congress midway in the term of a President. Under ordinary circumstances such a campaign is full of popular interest. One need only recall the contests of 1890 and 1894 to realize how deeply the country has often been stirred on such occasions. By contrast the present state of things seems most extraordinary, and at first thought almost incomprehensible; for hardly anybody outside the candidates seems to take any interest in the proceedings. The explanation, however, is very simple. The campaign upon which we have entered is a campaign without national issues, and it is quite impossible to get the voters excited over such a contest.

The Republican managers, and particularly such bosses as Platt and Quay, wanted to make support of the Government during the war the chief issue in the election of a new House of Representatives and the choice of United States Senators. But the war is over, and no such question remains. The proper policy of the United States after the war would naturally be the next issue, but it is too early—or too late—to raise it. So far as Cuba and Porto Rico are concerned, there is practically unanimous support of the position assumed by our Government in the peace protocol. So far as regards the Philippines, the military developments in that quarter have not yet ceased, and the taking of Manila is regarded by many as changing the situation and outlook from what they would have been if the news of the armistice had been received by Dewey and Merritt on the night before. Moreover, there is nothing like a division along party lines on the general question of a large permanent extension of our power in the far East. There are many Republicans of standing who oppose it; there are many influential Democrats who favor it; there are still more in each party who want to "dodge" the issue for the present. Under these circumstances the people are not going to vote for Republican or Democratic candidates for Congress because of the questions growing out of the war.

On the other hand, the war has obscured the old issue on which the last national campaign turned. Democratic conventions endorse the Chicago platform of 1896 in a perfunctory way, and Republican conventions reassert opposition to free coinage, but the people are weary of the whole "16 to 1" business. There will be a general cry of "Give us a rest!" if Col. Bryan shall return from camp to repeat that tiresome old speech of his. The Populistic element which has got control of the Democratic organization has nothing to substitute for free coinage. The strength of this element has always been in hard times and general depression. When the farmers are prosperous and business is booming, it is hard to stir up the people against the party in power. As things are now drifting, therefore, a campaign without national issues promises to result in the election of another Republican House and the increase of Republican strength in the Senate, simply because, on the whole, the Republican party, with all its faults and weaknesses, is a more efficient and trustworthy political organization than the Democratic-Populist "combine." There was nothing in the doings of this combine during the last session to commend it to the country, or to make independent voters regard its control of the next Congress with anything but apprehension.

These remarks find confirmation in the utterances of representatives of the respective congressional campaign committees. For the Democrats, Secretary Kerr boldly says there are great and pressing issues; but the only issues he names are dead issues. What can be deader than the question whether the Dingley bill raised or would have raised revenue enough? The Dingley bill itself is dead; there is no such a Mrs. Harris. Our existing revenue law is the Dingley law patched out of recognition. As for silver, and the issue of "real prosperity," those are simply the funeral baked meats of 1896. The Democrats have no issues, as they prove to demonstration when they attempt to explain what their issues are. Chairman Hull of the Re-

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publican committee frankly says, "There are no issues."

But while all this is true, the fact remains that an imperative obligation rests upon the country to elect Congressmen of a certain kind. Whatever else they are, they must be "wise." Never before were so many and such vexing problems committed to "the wisdom of Congress." From high and low, from newspapers and orators and political conventions, comes the swelling demand for a wise Congress. Our greatest and ablest public men, even our most omniscient editors, confess that the problems of government in Hawaii and Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines are too much for them. Heaven forbid that they, with their human fallibility, should undertake to say what is our true policy. But they have implicit faith in the wisdom of Congress. As both Harrison and McKinley dodged the details of Hawaiian government, solemnly turning them over to a Congress wiser than they, so all our accumulated problems of colonial administration are now to be laid, with beautiful trust, before a supernaturally wise Congress. The only objectors to this course are here and there Congressmen themselves who prefer the phrase, "the wisdom of the American people." The American people are out for wisdom in this campaign, and they must have it. Phrenological bumps will count for more than party records. Gnomic sayings will be the best campaign cries, and a reputation for sagacity is what will make a candidate run like wild-fire. When the next Congress meets, the air will be thick with wisdom. Solons from Indiana will be cheek by jowl with Aristotles from Texas, and Justinians from Idaho will rub shoulders with Charlemagnes from Rhode Island. The Speaker will be a very Alfonso the Wise. The obscure saying of the Book of Proverbs about wisdom crying in the "high places" will at last be explained as a prophecy of the wisdom of the Fifty-sixth Congress.

How do we know that these things will be so? Because the American people always gets what it wants. Just now it is in desperate need of a wise Congress; ergo, a wise Congress it will have. As Capt. Mahan writes to Sir G. S. Clarke about our capacity to govern colonies, "Where there is a will the Americans can find a way." That is to say, where there is ignorance there will be knowledge, where there is inexperience there will be skill, where there is narrow partisanship there will be broad statesmen, where there is folly there will be wisdom. It is well known that wisdom develops *pari passu* with the problems which it requires wisdom to solve. This country has now on its hands the greatest collection of problems the world ever saw. Problems beyond the dreams of avarice are pressing upon it. Therefore, it is going to have the greatest collection of wise men the world ever saw. That is the reasoning, and we see no flaw in it. We are a little troubled, however, by seeing so many of the old Congressmen renominated. Many of them have never before set up for wise men; wisdom would turn pale and flee at the sight of many of them. Little country lawyers and errand-boys of bosses and creatures kept by corporations—these are the manner of men we have known them to be, but now that they are renominated, in a year when the country is choosing only its wisest, it looks as if we had been mistaken. These petti-foggers and hirelings must have had a sudden access of wisdom—or else all the newspapers and conventions which talk so grandiloquently about "the wisdom of Congress" must have had a sudden access of folly.

DISEASE IN CUBA.

Surgeon-General Sternberg has asked for a court of inquiry to investigate the whole question of medical administration in connection with the Santiago campaign. There certainly should be some thorough-going inquiry, and a military inquiry would be the most satisfactory. We imagine that the result would be to convict the whole army system, more than any individual officer, of incompetence and responsibility for the lamentable results with which the public has been shocked. The Surgeon-General stoutly maintains, and with apparent reason, that the fault lay not with his department, but with blundering and inexperienced attachés of the Quartermaster-General, working at cross-purposes. This would ultimately bring the responsibility home to the Secretary of War and the President for consenting to those unfit appointments. The reports from the military hospitals are said to be the most complete and detailed ever made in a war, and to show an astonishing proportion of recovery among those under treatment for gunshot wounds. But it was yellow fever and malarial diseases under which our brave men were going down when the urgent cry reached Washington that the army must be moved or perish, and, though the death-rate has been and still is small, every day claims its victims.

The great risk run in sending troops to Cuba in the hot season was, of course, perfectly well known in advance. It was nature more than man, disease more than rifle-balls, that our military authorities feared; and it was their knowledge of this danger which led them to give up all idea of moving against Havana before the autumn. But the danger had to be faced at Santiago, in the supreme necessity of putting Cervera's fleet out of the reckoning, and the complete success attained would have justified even greater losses than we have suffered. Officers and men knew, however, the perils of disease which they would have to encounter, and their alacrity in offering themselves for the service put their patriotism in a bright light.

If there were any doubt of the deadly effect of the Cuban climate, in the rainy season, on soldiers in the field, the figures of the terrible losses suffered by the Spanish army would dispel it for ever. The statistics for two years, from March, 1895, to March, 1897, have been published. In that time Spain sent to Cuba 187,000 officers and men, who, with the garrisons already in the island, brought the total force up to something more than 200,000. The losses in what would strictly be called war were insignificant in the course of the two years' operations. There were killed in battle 61 officers and 1,314 privates, and 62 officers and 704 privates died of wounds. Here is a loss inflicted by the enemy on the total effective which is trifling enough. But it was disease which swelled the death-list to frightful figures. Yellow fever claimed as victims 313 officers and 13,000 privates, and of other diseases, mostly malarial, 127 officers and 40,000 privates died. Reckoning in those sent back to Spain sick or wounded, we get the following as the result of two years' campaigning in Cuba: out of every 1,000 men in the army, 10 were killed in battle or died of wounds, 66 were carried off by yellow fever, 201 died of other diseases, and 143 were sent home invalided—a total loss of 420 to the 1,000. It is easy to believe from these official figures that, adding in the losses of the year 1897-'98, fully 100,000 Spaniards have lost their lives in Cuba since 1895—probably 75,000 from disease.

Other military experiences in Cuba have shown similar results. The Spanish losses in the ten years' war, 1868-1878, were not as great, because no such force was then engaged, but then, too, it was the yellow fever and swamp fever that wrought more havoc than the insurgents. We have recently had the statistics given us for the British expedition against Havana in 1762. A force of about 16,000 men operated against the city from the 7th of June till the 14th of August. The campaign was successful, but in the course of it, while but 560 men were killed or died of wounds, no less than 4,708 died of sickness. As Col. Adye of the British army remarks: "Cuba may be the Pearl of the Antilles, but it is a jewel for which an uncommonly high price must be paid, and it has ever proved the grave of many a brave man not inured to its deadly climate at the worst season of the year."

We may certainly thank our stars that we came out of the Santiago campaign as well as we did. If there was a military irregularity in the famous "round robin" of our generals, it may well be pardoned in view of the great saving of life which resulted from it. Our soldiers, weakened by exposure and hardships al-

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most unexampled, would have fallen as the Spanish and the British did before insidious disease, if they had not been promptly removed. It is the shortness of the campaign which has saved us. If military operations had been continued as long as they were in the Crimean war, we not only should have shown, as the British did then, the inefficiency of our system of army administration, but should have been in a fair way to lose as many men by disease as they did.

"CONCESSIONS" IN CHINA.

The discussion in the English newspapers and elsewhere about concessions in the East tends to obscure the principle of international law with which it is connected. Among civilized governments the question of concessionaires' rights is one purely between the concessionaires and the government granting the concession. A concession is only a foreign name for a franchise or a charter. As a rule, a government gives precisely what charters or concessions it pleases, and it gives them to whom it pleases. An American State may give a charter, for instance, for building a railroad or supplying water-power; or the federal Government may do the same thing. It may give it to Bostonians, or to Frenchmen, or to any one it pleases; or it may refuse to grant charters at all, and may, through its own agencies, as by a board of works and taxation, do what private capital would otherwise be given the privilege of doing. The whole thing, that is, is a matter of privilege and not of right. More than this, after the privilege is granted, the granting Government alone can be appealed to to protect the rights of the concessionaire or grantee. He may go into the courts, if they are open to him in such cases, or he may appeal to the Legislature or the Executive, but the one principle which is recognized among all nations treating each other as equals (that is, among those from which we get our rules of international law) is that to his own Government he has no appeal.

It may be easily demonstrated, too, that this rule is not a mere custom, which may be modified or abandoned with the progress of civilization, but is a rule of necessity. For, if the concessionaire, or grantee, or franchise-holder were to have the right of appeal to his own Government, to make the right of any avail he must be able to invoke the power of his own Government to change, modify, repeal, or enforce the supervision by the other Government of its ordinary property law and law of contracts. If German investors, for instance, in Union Pacific securities were to maintain that they were being defrauded by the Government action in foreclosing, and were to have the right to invoke the aid of the German Government to settle the dispute, the latter could not possibly change the terms of the settlement in any way without itself administering the domestic laws of the United States, thus impairing its sovereignty and its independence. Indeed, it is not too much to say that the independent sovereignty of any country consists in great part in its sole and exclusive control of the ordinary rules affecting common private right—that is, life, liberty, and property—within its borders. The rule, therefore, flows directly from the two great principles of international dealings, the equality and independent sovereignty of states.

On the same principle the concessionaire has no right of complaint at home, if in dealings with him some third Power is favored. It would not help the Germans, in the case we have supposed, if in the Union Pacific settlement there were circumstances which looked as if we had given, for political reasons, a preference to Englishmen. The history of Venezuela's dealings with the great Manoa and other allied concessions would furnish some curious illustrations of this. In that case the Government of Venezuela gave away to foreigners a principality, in which they were to have almost every conceivable right of property and development, and opportunity for the investment of capital. But the right of sovereignty was reserved, and consequently the concessionaires have had Venezuela alone to look to for protection in their grant. The very object of the grant was to invite foreign capital, but foreign capital, being fully aware of the principle involved, took the grant with the risk.

The difficulty over concessions in China arises, as any one may see from the dispatches about it during the last few days, from the impossibility of adhering to it and abandoning it at the same time. What the English concessionaires want is that England should see to it that they have their rights not merely as against China, but as against any third Power, like Russia, which intrigues in China to their disadvantage. Lord Salisbury perceives that such a departure from the ordinary rule must lead to a war with Russia; for, the moment he tries to administer the property law of China, and Russia tries to frustrate his efforts, the question at once arises, who is sovereign? Were all three civilized states, the answer would be China. But if the answer is not China, then it must be either Russia or England, and nothing can determine which, if both insist, but force. We could not have a more striking illustration of the necessity (between states which do not desire perpetual war) of the rule, the working of which we have endeavored to describe, than in this exception.

If both Russia and England can agree that the application of the rule in China is an impossibility, the agreement would be tantamount to an understanding that Chinese sovereignty is at an end; and as there must be a government wherever there is property, and especially foreign trade, Russia and England must divide China, always subject, of course, to the right of interested third parties like Germany and France to a share in the spoils, or burden (whichever it is considered). There is no such thing as half-a-dozen or even two Powers administering property and contractual law antagonistically in one and the same place. They must fight or settle and divide. This explains why we now hear of Russia and England establishing "spheres of influence" in China, exactly as has been done in Africa in regions inhabited by wandering tribes. It makes no difference how government—that is, the administration of some effective property law—happens to be lacking; whether it has never existed, or has become decrepit, its absence is unendurable, and cannot be made up for by the pretence that it exists. This pretence has hitherto served England in China, simply because Russia had not appeared on the scene.

Of course, the question might be settled by England leaving China to be absorbed by Russia, on the ground that a war would cost a great deal more than the protection of concessionaires or the "open door" would come to in centuries. This is the view we have hitherto taken of our interest in the matter, which is quite as great, potentially, as England's. But to some minds, especially to those who profit by it, trade worth $100,000,000 is cheaply bought by a war costing $1,000,000,000. At any rate, we may congratulate ourselves that China is an exceptional case; for the principle of protection to concessions, generally applied, would involve the whole world in war.

MAMMOTH CAVE AND CLOUDLAND.

CLOUDLAND, N. C., August 8, 1898.

To a New Yorker bent on escaping from summer heat, the North naturally suggests itself as the proper place of refuge. In the month of July it is, however, difficult to find a spot in the Adirondacks, the White Mountains, the Moosehead Lake region, or the Maine woods in general, that is not rendered almost intolerable by the myriads of torturing flies. Our Southern mountains—those of North Carolina and Tennessee—are free from this pest, and this induced us to give that region a trial last month.

Before visiting the "Land of the Sky," as our Southern neighbors have proudly called their mountain plateau, we decided to make a détour to Kentucky and see the Mammoth Cave. A cooler place of refuge could not be found outside of an ice-house, for its invariable temperature is fifty-four degrees summer and winter. It is visited, we were told at the hotel, by about 5,000 persons annually, most of whom come in summer. That number might be doubled or trebled, one fancies, if the facilities and accommodations were bettered. From Glasgow Junction there

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is a wretched little railway which takes nearly an hour to make the last nine miles to the Cave. The single car is so dirty that one hesitates to take a seat. In answer to a question, the conductor smilingly replied that "the car gets a coat of paint once every four years, whether it needs it or not." The hotel is cleaner than the car, but its beds are harder than rocks, the food abundant but unappetizing, and the "music" supplied by three darkies—fiddle, guitar, and double bass—simply awful. It is probable that when a dispute now said to be pending regarding the proprietorship of the Cave is settled, matters will improve.

Such trifles, however, must not prevent any one from visiting the Mammoth Cave, which certainly deserves all the fame that has accrued to it as a rival, in its way, of Niagara, the Yellowstone, and the Yosemite. Nor should any one neglect (though many do) to take both the routes known as the long and the short trips, or the "River Route" and the "Route of Pits and Domes." The shorter trip is easily made in an afternoon or evening, while the other takes from nine to fifteen hours or more, according to the size of the party and the behavior of the subterranean rivers, which sometimes rise suddenly and oblige the guides to take their parties out of the usually spacious and comfortable main route to the upper levels of the Cave through a four-mile passage in which visitors have to crawl on hands and knees, or squirm and wriggle along as best they may between rocks whose embrace is far closer and more importunate than that of the stretch notorious as "Fat Man's Misery."

The women of the party in bloomers and loose flannel jackets, the men in blue denim suits adorned with red stripes, follow the guide down a pleasant path through the woods to the opening of the Cave only a few hundred yards from the hotel, which itself is situated right above the main part of the Cave. The big yawning mouth of the Cave is edged with ferns and pretty vines, and no one suspects that two or three steps will suddenly plunge him from a temperature of about ninety to one of fifty-four degrees, in which his breath becomes visible. A strong current of cold air constantly comes up from the Cave, which has been greatly widened at the opening. After a few dozen steps it narrows again, and here it has been found necessary to put an iron gate to prevent vandals from carrying off the beautiful formations inside. At this gate the current of air is so strong that it is apt to blow out the lamps which about half the visitors have to carry. These lamps bear most unpleasant witness to the mismanagement of the Cave. Instead of getting portable electric lights, or at least odorless lanterns, visitors are supplied with the most primitive sort of miners' lamps, whose smoke and vile odor vitiate the delicious air of the Cave, and make one long to return and get away from them. This drawback, combined with the fact that there is at first little to see, made us think, after the first twenty minutes, that the Cave was a grand humbug, not much better than an ordinary railway tunnel. It seemed hardly worth while to come so great a distance to see an indefinitely elongated cellar, with here and there some point of merely human interest, such as the well-preserved wooden water conduits and the vats put in by the miners who worked the Cave for saltpetre during the war of 1812; or the piles of rocks of various sizes built up by human hands all along the route—piles which suggest the monuments gradually erected by Spanish wayfarers at places where a man was murdered, but which here have a less grim significance, each pile representing some State, country, society, or individual. Judging from the size of these piles, New York has sent more visitors to the Cave than any State except Kentucky itself. Admiral Dewey's pile is already quite large.

The impression that the Cave is not specially remarkable for its natural beauty or sublimity gradually wears away, and gives place to one of a very different kind when the big domes and pits are reached. These vary considerably in size, while otherwise resembling one another. The domes remind one remotely of Moorish architecture. The pits have at their bottoms more or less débris, consisting of rocks of all sizes, which had been loosened by the water that drips incessantly down the sides of the well, cutting them into a beautiful convoluted and fluted surface. One of the most gruesome pits—suggesting an ideal prison for mediæval torturers—is seen through a sort of window about half way up the side of the precipice, while the "Bottomless Pit" is seen best from the bridge which crosses it. The guide rather damages the reputation of the "bottomless" pit by throwing down a cotton fuse dipped in oil and lighted, which brings the bottom into clear view. All the pits and domes are thus lighted by a dexterous toss of the fuse from the end of a stick which the guide carries for this purpose. It whizzes up towards the dome, illuminating that a second, and then lies burning in the pit for minutes, lighting thoroughly the dripping walls of these underground wells, which reverse the usual order of things by having the water come in at the top instead of the bottom.

At one place the guide takes all the lamps, and bids the visitors sit on a bench and listen to the silence while he prepares a surprise. As he disappears, Egyptian darkness closes in upon the scene, but presently, as if the eyes were becoming accustomed to the darkness, it seems as if the vault above had been removed, revealing the sky with streaks of cloud and beautifully twinkling stars. The illusion is perfect and the Cave trip seems ended; but presently the guide's light (which, reflected from a distance on the crystals of the ceiling, had created the appearance of a starry sky) becomes brighter as he approaches, and the fairy scene vanishes. This is the famous Star Chamber. An even more startling illusion is created at another place. Again the guide leaves the party alone and goes ahead. All at once a statue of a woman is seen ahead, as distinct, as white, and as solid, apparently, as if chiselled out of alabaster. It proves to be a silhouette of light formed by the two sides of the Cave coming together at a certain angle. The discovery of this statue was due to an accident. Two parties were in the Cave at the same time, and luckily happened to be in the exact and only spots where the statue may be produced and seen. The colored guide who first saw it supposed it was an apparition, and was so frightened that he refused at first to tell any one about it. Subsequently it was found that it can be produced at will provided that two persons are in those exact two places at the same time; but it is obvious that this might not have happened again for a century. Unimaginative persons have given the shape the name of "Martha Washington statue"; but with its gruesome surroundings it rather suggests the goddess Erda as she rises from a rock-cleft in Wagner's "Rheingold."

Other aspects of the Cave are more happily named, such as the "Star Chamber" on the short route, and on the long route "Fat Man's Misery," with "Great Relief" at the other end. These are followed by the Dead Sea, Lethe, Styx, and Purgatory. But the greatest curiosity of the longer route is the "Echo River," which is navigated on flat-bottomed boats for about twenty minutes. The Cave here is very low—the first arch under which the boat goes being only two feet and a half above the level of the water ordinarily—but after a while it rises a little and provides a vault which has what is probably the most beautiful echo in the world. The guide sings an arpeggio (three or four successive tones, say G, B, D, G up, or G, E, C, G down) and, thanks to the duration of the echo, these four tones reach the ear as a rich and perfect chord of simultaneous sound. Still more beautiful is a higher arpeggio sung by a woman's voice. The sounds seem disembodied and etherealized, like those of an æolian harp, and the effect is as thrilling as the three choruses, one above the other, in "Parsifal." Europe has the Sistine Chapel and some acoustically remarkable cathedrals, but our subterranean Echo River surpasses them all. After the beautiful, we had an exhibition of the sublime in sound. A Kentuckian in our boat fired a revolver. The sound which, in the open air, would have been like the transient crack of a whip, here reverberated with a deafening boom, like the roar of great peals of thunder, lasting fully a minute. It must have astonished the blind fishes and crawfish that inhabit the river, so we fancied, but the guide said that these creatures seemed not to mind noise any more than light, unless accompanied by a disturbance of the water. We did not succeed in seeing a blind fish, but one of the party caught a crawfish. The river was very gentle and pleasant while we were on it, but the guide said that sometimes, when there are heavy rains outside, Purgatory is changed from a great dry hall to the bed of a rushing torrent, in which it is difficult to prevent the boat from being dashed against the rock. It is only quite recently that the source of this water has been traced to the Green River; where it flows is not yet known.

Of the fifty or more kinds of animals—mostly of the lowest orders—which are known to exist in the Cave, casual visitors are not apt to see more than three or four. The most abundant are a sort of long-legged cricket somewhat resembling a spider. These are everywhere, and when they die they remain where they happen to be on the wall, while a white fungus covers them with a thick shroud till they look like snowballs with legs. In one of the vaults there are also mineral "snowballs," the ceiling being covered with glistening white balls of gypsum crystals. Farther on, the gypsum takes the form of flowers, chiefly marguerites, sunflowers, and regal chrysanthemums, though roses too may be found and the graceful forms of celery tops. The "Vale of Diamonds" and the "Jewel Chamber" scintillate with sparks both on ceiling and walls. Hours might be spent admiring and describing all these details, but I can mention only one more—the Mammoth Dome, which is not included in either of the regu-

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lar routes, but can be added to one of them if the party is not too large. It forms a fit climax to the trip, and, though somewhat difficult to reach, should be missed by no one. In this dome there are magnificent columns which have been fitly named the "Ruins of Karnak," for their perfection and symmetry suggest ancient ruins, the work of human hands rather than of water. From below, one of these columns is seen to be cut across as straight as a tree cut by a saw. In looking up, one thinks of great cathedrals, or even of the perpendicular sides of some Western cañon; and although the dome is only 150 feet high, it looks far higher.

Before leaving the Cave by way of the aptly named Corkscrew, we rested awhile in the romantic Bandits' Hall, watching the gambols of the rats, of which there are great numbers in the Cave. Sometimes, in skipping about, they turn over a stone which echoes in a way that would be most uncanny if one were alone in the dark. A man was lost in the Cave some years ago, and, when found again, two days later, he was a raving maniac and remained so. The Cave is a perfect labyrinth, and every guide is obliged to serve an apprenticeship of several years before he is allowed to take charge of visitors. Should anything happen to a guide, the only safe thing for visitors to do would be to sit down where they were, without moving a step from the regular route. Our guide, Bishop, though his uncle was one of the first explorers of the Cave and he himself has spent the greater part of his life in it, even now dislikes to be left alone in its dead silence in the dark on account of the strange whisperings and mysterious sounds that seem to fill the air. When we came out of the Cave we seemed to step from an ice cellar into a Turkish bath, and the pure air of the Kentucky forest was as laden with rich odors as the exotic atmosphere of a greenhouse. We had never before realized what an abundance and variety of odors exist in ordinary air. It does not seem probable, however, that, as is often asserted, there is anything especially exhilarating in the Cave air itself, as there is in mountain breezes. It is simply the purity and the coolness of this atmosphere that enable one to make the seventeen-mile trip underground without special fatigue. The Cave still contains the two stone huts that were once occupied by hopeful consumptives. When one of them died the others abandoned the experiment.

If the weird statue in the Mammoth Cave suggested Erda, going from there to the top of Roan Mountain—second in height among the Appalachian peaks—was like passing from the subterranean abode of the Nibelung dwarfs in the same opera to the cloudy heights of Walhalla. A mountain railway, known as the Cranberry Road—forty miles long and built at the cost of over a million dollars to mines that furnish steel of the finest quality—leaves the Southern Railroad at Johnson City, and twists its way up a rushing mountain torrent through gorges that repeatedly suggest the grandeur of Colorado cañons. Early in July, beauty was added to the scene by a lavish profusion of white and pink rhododendrons. These also adorn the twelve-mile road up the mountain, which is made in a comfortable surrey that connects Roan Mountain station with the Cloudland Hotel at the summit. This hotel is a curiosity in several ways. It is the highest building east of the Rocky Mountains—101 feet higher than the Mount Washington Hotel. Mount Mitchell, alone of the dozen peaks that here rise more than 6,000 feet above sea-level, is higher (6,711) than Roan Mountain (6,394), but there is no building on its summit, and it seldom emerges from the clouds. The State line, dividing North Carolina from Tennessee, passes through the dining-room of Cloudland Hotel, and there are tables at which one can handle his fork in one State and his knife in the other; while there are rooms upstairs in which one can sleep in two States at once—head in one, feet in the other. It is curious, also, to see this large building, capable of housing several hundred guests, exposing its broad sides boldly to the violent winds without the chains with which the Mount Washington Hotel has had to be anchored to the stones. The roof of Cloudland Hotel has twice been carried away, but is now safely moored with heavy rocks. During the first week of July a violent storm raged three days uninterruptedly—the fiercest the proprietor remembered in several years—yet the hotel stood firm as a rock. The thermometer was down to 40 at night, and huge logs were burning in all the chimneys. These fires are kept up day and night throughout the summer for those who may want them, though the temperature very rarely reaches the low figure just given. During the four weeks of our stay on the mountain—ending August 8—it was nearly always 58 or 60 at eight A. M., and we never saw it higher than 64 in the afternoon, the usual figure being 62—an ideal temperature for either loafing or climbing, and especially for literary work—neither too cold nor too warm, but just right. For authors who are anxious to do a vast amount of work and yet get their vacation at the same time, there is perhaps no place in this country (east of California) equal to the summit of Roan Mountain. The hotel table, too, is good, and the charges moderate.

The Cloudland Hotel is most aptly named, for although the superb view embraces hundreds of lofty peaks in half-a-dozen States, it is the clouds that afford the best entertainment here—that is, when they are not too close neighbors, as is often the case. Yet the rain always sinks out of sight in a few minutes, leaving a dry road to walk on, and, what is more, the dampness of the air is never depressing, but rather exhilarating. Just below and behind the hotel there is a gulch from which often arise mists on which the setting sun paints perfect circular rainbows, not as brilliant as those under Niagara or the Vernal Falls in the Yosemite, but very beautiful nevertheless; and within the circle the spectator sometimes sees his own shadow with a halo around it. The sunsets are wonderfully varied and beautiful, painting the sky in all directions. One evening the west was all ablaze with bars of gold and deep red against the faint apple-green and blue of the sky, while in the east there was piled up a Himalayan range of snowy cumulous clouds which in succession assumed all the tints of the rainbow, flashes of sheet lightning adding to their wonderful beauty. Another evening vast volumes of mist rose from the valley like steam from a huge cauldron, and as they rolled away the sun gave them a bright flame color, so that they seemed to stream from an active volcano or a great forest fire below.

The air up here is often Alpine in its fresh and bracing qualities. The mountains themselves, with all their abundance, lack individuality of outline, but they are beautifully green, and some of the unbroken valley views are enchanting. But the railways are beginning to invade these virgin forests (they are already worth $25,000,000 a year to North Carolina alone), and "balds" are becoming more and more numerous. On some of these bald spots farmhouses may be seen, while most of them are the resorts of sheep, cattle, horses, and pigs. The razor-back pig is not a beautiful animal, but when one sees him living this open-air life, feeding on grass, and washed by daily rains, one understands why he should yield such well-flavored hams. It is amusing to see the animals stampede down hill when they hear the call for salt.

Interesting excursions can be made on horseback or on foot to several waterfalls or neighboring peaks, and during these a chance is afforded to see the natives, who, notwithstanding their feuds among themselves, are perfectly civil and safe to others. Some of them come up to the hotel. On July 4 there was a small vendetta. One of the victims asked a doctor from Knoxville who happened to be in the hotel, "Am I cut to the holler? 'Cause if I am I guess I'll die." But he recovered. One man up here has killed three enemies, from a sense of duty, but now he is going to build a church where, he says, "not a d—— soul shall go in but my own family." The poverty of these people is startling, and sometimes pathetic. A man walked eight miles to bring 60 cents' worth of corn to the hotel, and another day two young girls walked twelve miles to bring 15 cents' worth of beets! The girls here are said to marry at twelve or fourteen, and at sixteen they are looked on as old maids. Some of them are very pretty at fourteen.

H. T. FINCK.

MME. DARMESTETER'S RENAN.—II.

PARIS, August 11, 1898.

Mme. Darmesteter describes, with great delicacy of touch, the domestic life of Renan, after his marriage, surrounded by his sister, his mother, who had come to live with him, and who liked to tell him old stories of Brittany. In 1857, the death of Quatremère left the professorship of Hebrew vacant at the Collège de France. Renan, well known already by his 'General History of the Semitic Languages,' his translation of the Book of Job, his version of the Song of Songs, thought himself entitled to it. By the rules of the college, the professors and the Members of the Academy of Inscriptions present their candidate to the Minister of Public Instruction; they invariably give the same name, and the Minister sanctions their choice. It was well known that the Empress Eugénie objected to the choice of Renan, and so the professorship remained vacant for five years. The Emperor, less intolerant than his wife, offered Renan another professorship as a compensation. Renan declined it; he wished to be the successor of Quatremère, who had been his professor. Another compensation was offered him, an archæological mission to Syria. This was accepted; and it was decided that Henriette should accompany him as secretary and keeper of accounts, as Renan was thought "incapable of the material cares which such a long journey would necessitate."

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The journey was hardly decided on when the news of the massacres of the Christians of the Lebanon by the Druses reached France. An Anglo-French expedition left for Asia Minor, and Renan and his sister made the journey in one of the army transports. "Fully absorbed," says Madame Darmesteter, "by scientific objects, we see in the 'Mission to Phœnicia' [published after the return] a Renan very unmindful of politics, who seems to consider the massacres and the resistance of the Christians as providentially combined in the interest of Semitic archæology. He found the presence of the soldiers very convenient; he made his great excavations with the army, and the navy helped to transport what he found." When he began the excavations at Byblos, he had hopes which were somewhat disappointed; he found ruins, fragments, but no great masterpiece of art. With his sister, he was the master of a little military camp; he made great marches with escorts, and was able to write, in the greatest peace of mind, admirable descriptions of the Syrian landscape.

In the month of July, 1861, Madame Renan came to join them. Henriette might now have left for France, as she had already been unwell, but Renan took her with him to Palestine; he had, for years, planned to write a Life of Jesus. In the Holy Land, Christ appeared to him as a living figure, with a marvellous reality. He saw it moving amid the landscape of Galilee. He wrote the 'Life of Jesus'—that is to say, the principal lineaments of it—at Ghesir; the portion which extends to the last journey to Jerusalem. As fast as he wrote a page his sister copied it. Madame Renan returned to France, and Renan was again alone with his sister. Henriette became ill with intermittent fever and neuralgia. A doctor came from Beirut, but it was too late, and she died of exhaustion. A year afterwards, when the 'Life of Jesus' appeared, Renan dedicated it to "the pure soul of my sister Henriette, who died at Byblos the 24th day of September, 1861." The dedication ends thus: "Reveal to me, O good genius, reveal to me who loved you, the truths which vanquish death, hinder us from fearing it, and make us almost love it."

Renan came back to France alone. Many times his friend Berthelot had written to him to hasten, to bring his sister home while there was still time. "One does not," says Madame Darmesteter, "end a masterpiece without paying for it in one way or another; the life of Henriette was the price of the Life of Jesus." The publication of this book became Renan's great preoccupation on his return. He was, by a decree of January 11, 1862, appointed Professor of the Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syriac Languages at the Collège de France. There was much opposition on many sides. To the court as well as to the church Renan was a notorious heretic, and his appointment to a professorship of Biblical exegesis was, therefore, a cause of great scandal. To the Quartier Latin, liberal and freethinking, he was a traitor accepting gifts from the tyrant. For many weeks it was announced that his first lecture would occasion a noisy demonstration.

"It must be said," remarks Mme. Darmesteter, "that Renan, notwithstanding his discreet and grave manner, did not dislike at heart this agitation and publicity. Some people did not fail to advise him to deliver very special lectures, on purely technical questions, in the small room which was used by Burnouf and Quatremère, and in which only about thirty people could sit. But, on the contrary, the new professor asked for his opening lecture the great amphitheatre of the college. A note in the newspapers announced the day and the hour; it was well known that he was to treat the question of Christianity. He did not wish to hide himself. 'Our mission,' said he, 'does not require noise, but it is not the inoffensive quiet of mediocrity.' It seemed as if his book, still unpublished, was circulating in his veins, gave him a sort of fever, and forced him to deliver his thoughts to the crowd."

On the 21st of February the amphitheatre of the Sorbonne was full of students, Catholics and Liberals; the subject chosen was the influence exerted by the Semitic peoples on civilization. The professor was constantly interrupted—by the Catholics when he spoke of " an incomparable man, so great that, though everything here must be judged from the point of view of positive science, he would not contradict those who call him God," and said that "in adopting Christianity we have profoundly modified it, so that it has in reality become our work"; by the students of the Latin Quarter when he said that "the French Revolution, in creating the principle of unity in the State, often compromised liberty." We must remember that this took place under the Empire, at a time when there was no liberty of speech. The students, finding out that, on the whole, Renan was on the Liberal side, cheered him, followed him to his house in the Rue Medame, and gave him an ovation. The Government declared his lectures dangerous to the public peace; he was not allowed to speak at the college. For two years, however, he received his salary and kept his title of professor; then a new professorship was created, to which was attributed the study of the Hebrew languages, and, by way of compensation, Renan was to reënter the Imperial Library as a *conservateur*. He declined, and sent a response to the Minister ending with the words of Saint Peter to a simoniac: "Pecunia tua tecum sit." The next day there appeared in the *Moniteur* a short decree in these words: "The nomination of M. Renan to the Imperial Library is revoked. M. Renan remains suspended from his functions at the Collège de France."

Published on the 23d of June, 1863, the 'Life of Jesus' had an immediate and extraordinary success. Few people were of the same mind as Mr. Gladstone, who pronounced it to be a dull book and could not finish it.

"It was," said Mme. Darmesteter, "for a serious book, the greatest success of the century. The learned read its fine and profound pages for their science, women for their poetry; the mass of anti-clericalism in the country of M. Homais [the Voltairian of 'Mme. Bovary'] applauded in the name of progress; but, above all, the book pleased all those who had been Christians in faith and were so still at heart. Like a broken vase still full of perfume, the tender infidelity of Renan issued a sweet and morbid incredulity. . . . The world is full of men and women who are in mourning for some ideal on whose tomb they continue to throw flowers. And all these felt themselves at last understood."

Mme. Darmesteter adds, however, justly that

"Conceived far from any library, the book maintains a certain hesitation and indecision in questions of criticism, and surprising variations in exegesis. In the historical importance given to the Gospel of St. John, one feels more than once that in Renan the artist often tempted the scholar, and that the scholar succumbed. It is, perhaps, not at Ghesir that a work of erudition can be elaborated. It needs, perhaps, the unequalled patience of a German university for the collection of all the documents and the criticism of all the texts which allow the reconstitution of the past. . . . Certainly the Baurs, Strausses, the Zellers, the Reusses, the Hilgenfelds, the Weissaeckers, the Ewalds, had not Renan's magical power of evocation. . . . The sky of the East; the memories of a pious heart, such are the true documents which inspired Renan's incomparable pages."

Madame Darmesteter tells us frankly that Renan knew only the works of Strauss, of Neander, of Bunsen, of Le Nain de Tillemont, the old book of Herder, and was unacquainted with the more recent works of German exegesis. The 'Life of Jesus' is, in fact, a religious novel, if the word be not thought too profane; it is a sort of dramatic reconstitution, ennobled by the moral ideal which the author entertained. So viewed, it marked an immense contrast between the modern form of unbelief and that of Voltaire and of the Voltairian school, which moulded so many minds in the last and in the first half of the nineteenth century.

The final pages of the 'Life of Jesus' form an introduction to the succeeding volume, 'The Apostles.' After Renan's great triumph, the Liberal party, who thought that it had a right to share in the success, wished Renan to come forward as a candidate for the Chamber in Paris. He refused, and left with his wife for Asia Minor. He sought there for the remains of the seven churches of the East, and studied the conditions of ancient life. He took notes for the descriptions which appeared in the 'Origin of Christianity.' The second volume was, so to speak, the story of the posthumous life of Jesus; the third, entitled 'Saint Paul,' is, perhaps, in Madame Darmesteter's opinion, the most perfect historical picture produced by Renan. In this volume we are no longer in an atmosphere of hallucination, but in a realistic world. Renan describes Saint Paul, not as an idealist, a poet, a saint, but as a disputatious missionary, fond of strife, superficially educated, but speaking Greek, and thus well armed for the work of propagandism in the great ports of the Mediterranean. The Greek language was the *lingua franca* of the time. Antioch, Ephesus, became centres of Christianity. The 'Apostles' appeared in 1866, 'Saint Paul' in 1869. Renan presented himself in the latter year as candidate for the Chamber at Meaux, in the department of Seine-et-Marne. He belonged to the Liberal opposition, but he was willing to become reconciled to the Empire if the Empire became liberal. He had grown very intimate with Prince Jerome Napoleon; he had even some sympathy for the person of Louis Napoleon. "France," he wrote afterwards in his 'Intellectual and Moral Reform,' "had what it wished for, order and peace. Liberty was wanting, it is true, but this want offended only a minority." In his electoral campaign he advocated a diminution of the army (and 1870 was approaching) and a minimum of reform, chiefly political decentralization and a greater diffusion of public instruction. He had nothing in him of the political agitator. He made no promises to his electors, and the Government candidate was elected by an increased majority.

Correspondence.

CATHOLICISM IN THE PHILIPPINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Both as an old reader of the *Nation*

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and as a theologian, I took great interest in the article on "Religious Problems in the Philippines" that was published in your issue of August 11.

In one point, however, I cannot entirely agree with you. You pretend to fear that the interests of the Roman Catholic Church in the Philippines would suffer harm if we should become compelled to annex the islands in order to restore order and peace there. While I do not see any urgent necessity for annexing the Philippine Islands, I am rather inclined to believe that the true interests of the Roman Catholic Church absolutely demand annexation of the whole undivided group of islands by the United States, for the restoration of the *status quo ante bellum* is entirely out of the question. Spain is not able to retain the islands. Therefore, nothing else remains than that they either should be annexed by the United States or that they should be divided among the different Powers of Europe. The result of the latter alternative would be that some of the islands would go to the Protestant Powers—England and Germany—with which the Catholic Church has established a *modus vivendi* which, however, does not offer any advantages over the *modus vivendi* in existence between Rome and the United States. Other islands would fall to Russia and to Japan, the former Power being aggressively Greek-Catholic, the latter still heathen. The Roman Catholic Church can, accordingly, in no way desire a partition of the Philippines, because it might find itself in some parts of the islands under the influence of hostile governments as the result of a partition. It must, even on general principles, prefer to deal with but one government. The Holy See at Rome, instead of being utterly opposed to the idea that the United States should gain possession of the Philippine Islands, will welcome and promote annexation by the United States as the best and most advantageous solution of the serious and difficult problem, so far as its own vital interests are concerned, as soon as it becomes convinced that the conditions which prevailed before the war cannot be restored; and it appears to me as if the appeal of the Pope to our Government for protection of the interests of his Church indicates that the Pope is not very far from that conviction.

The present Roman Catholic Church in the United States will not less be benefited by so large an addition of Roman Catholics to our population, which will not fail to exercise in due time a very powerful influence upon our national destiny as well as upon the destiny of the Roman Catholic Church. Only a few years ago, it used to be a very common boast among our Roman Catholics that their numbers were increasing so rapidly that, within a comparatively short period, they would gain absolute control of our country, and be in a position to compel their fellow-citizens of Protestant complexion to return to the folds of the Roman Church. Such indiscreet boasts induced some Protestants who were not less foolish to attempt suppressing the Catholic Church by legislative measures. In the State of Illinois, for instance, they introduced a school law which was expected to bring the Catholic parochial schools under the control of Protestant school directors. The result was that the Republican party, which was responsible for the odious law, was defeated at the polls, and that Mr. Altgeld was elected Governor of Illinois. Since that time the Catholics have learned more discretion, but we should be greatly mistaken if we imagined them to despair of their future. Their prospects are as bright as ever, and no reason can be discovered why they should not welcome with the greatest joy any and all additions to their numbers as citizens of the United States, in consequence of our country retaining all the former possessions of Spain which have been conquered in this war.

If these facts were well and generally known, the most strenuous opposition to the annexation of the Philippine Islands, as well as of Cuba and Porto Rico, might be expected to arise among the Protestant element of our population; and all the narrow-minded among it will certainly raise a loud outcry against the admission of millions of Roman Catholics into the United States. But the truly liberal Protestants far outnumber the class of fanatics, and are not afraid to enter upon even a keener competition with their Roman Catholic brethren than heretofore. They are perfectly aware of the fact that the influence and power of the Roman Church in the United States will be enormously strengthened by adding to it the well-disciplined and immensely rich Church in the Philippines; but they rejoice in the opportunity of combating that power with the weapons of true faith and charity. They are absolutely hostile to the employment of external force in attempting to overcome what they think to be religious error. Such men as these assisted in wiping that un-Christian school law from the statute-book of the State of Illinois. I know at least one Protestant minister who, although the law did not apply to his congregation at all, explained its real intention to his congregation in a sermon, and, at the risk of losing his position, exhorted his hearers to vote against the party that had made the attempt to organize a persecution of our Catholic fellow-citizens. All that this class of Protestants expects is an open door to enable them to preach their faith among the Filipinos. They will send, as soon as possible, missionaries to the Philippines, and, as a matter of course, gain a permanent foothold there. But, if it is true that the Roman Catholic Church in the United States has proved herself stronger in an unrestricted and unlimited competition with her Protestant sisters than was supposed, it is neither to be assumed nor feared that the Protestant missionaries will immediately succeed in overthrowing the predominance of the Roman Catholic Church in the Philippines. All that they may reasonably be expected to achieve at the outset is to stir up the latent energies of the defenders of the Catholic faith in that part of the world.

WM. WEBER.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., August 16, 1898.

A FLEMISH SOCIETY IN BELGIUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Kindly allow a reader, of Belgian origin, to correct an error contained in your Notes in the *Nation* of August 4. The error takes its origin in the *Athenæum* of July 2, and is, no doubt, due to ignorance. There is no such "*German* movement" in Belgium as that referred to, and if there were, nothing could be more absurd than that 50,000 German residents should insist "upon the use of (their language) German in the Belgian Parliament," representing a population of 7,000,000!

The real fact is this: There is in Belgium a society, known as the Willems Fond, of which the writer has been a member since 1875. This society has now nearly 50,000 members, not at all Germans, but Flemings, whose ancestors were mostly Celts and Francs. They are proud of their ancient Teutonic language, one of the mother tongues of English, and which resembles the latter much more than German. The society I refer to has for the past thirty years published many books, lectures, political pamphlets, etc., in Flemish, and in many cases these are distributed free to the laboring classes and farmers. The founders of the society were politicians who spoke Flemish in meetings and in delivering lectures, but who spoke French in their homes and in their clubs. This is the case with the leaders to-day. Not long since, I met, in Ghent, the Secretary of the society. This good Fleming and his family spoke most elegant French at home, but outside of his home he was a radical Fleming—to secure the Flemish vote for a seat in Parliament.

As to the use of the Flemish language in the Belgian Parliament, or, as it is called, "Chamber of Representatives," we are far from that, for more than two-thirds of the Belgian people—all the inhabitants of the provinces of Hainaut, Namur, Luxembourg, Liège, and part of those in Brabant, Limbourg, and Flanders—are French in language, and these people know neither Flemish nor German. At the same time, French is the language one hears most among all educated classes in the Flemish provinces. As to Germans, there are, no doubt, many merchants, clerks, hotel-waiters and other servants in Antwerp, Brussels, Ostend, and three or four other cities, but few, if any, have become Belgian citizens; and, as to the practical use of German, one could certainly not travel far with it in Belgium. In fact, I am sure that in Antwerp, Brussels, and in many cities of Flanders, one would succeed better with plain English than with German.

It is true that some Flemish politicians have insisted upon the use of *Flemish* in the courts, and this in some cities of Brabant, Limbourg, and Antwerp is a reasonable demand; but, as to the Belgian Parliament, the Government, the army, the schools, the leading journals—the French tongue cannot be replaced by Flemish, for the simple reason that French (or Walloon French in some cases) is the only language spoken by nearly five millions of Belgians, while most of the Flemish people have always considered an education without a thorough knowledge of French incomplete. I may add here that the leading Flemish littérateurs, divines, jurists, philosophers, statesmen, historians, novelists, and poets, have written their works either in Latin, in past ages, or, during the present century, in French. The leading Belgian newspapers and periodicals are also printed in French.

A. DE POTTER.

NEW YORK, August 17, 1898.

Notes.

Preliminary fall announcements by Henry Holt & Co. embrace 'The Science of Finance,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams; 'Essays on Economics,' by the late Francis A. Walker, as well as 'Essays on Education,' by the same writer; 'A History of English

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Romanticism—18th Century,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale; 'Modern American Oratory,' entire speeches by Phillips, Curtis, Beecher, Schurz, Black, Depew, and Grady, with a discussion and a bibliography by Ralph C. Ringwalt of Columbia; 'Standard English Poems,' from Spenser to Tennyson; 'French Lyrics,' more than 200 in number, edited by Prof. A. G. Canfield of the University of Kansas; 'Music and Musicians,' from the French of Albert Lavignac; and 'A Political History of Contemporary Europe,' from the French of Charles Seignobos, by Prof. Macvane of Harvard.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s list opens with 'The Life and Letters of Paul the Apostle,' by the Rev. Lyman Abbott, and contains also: 'The Life of Our Lord in Art,' by Miss Estelle M. Hurll, with about 100 illustrations; 'Human Immortality: Two Supposed Objections to the Doctrine,' by Prof. William James; 'Afternoons in the College Chapel,' by Prof. Francis G. Peabody of Harvard; 'The Making and the Unmaking of the Preacher,' by President Tucker of Dartmouth; in the American Statesmen series, lives of Salmon P. Chase (by Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard), Charles Sumner (by Moorfield Storey), Thaddeus Stevens (by Samuel W. McCall), and Charles Francis Adams (by his son and namesake); 'John Adams, the Statesman of the American Revolution,' by Mellen Chamberlain; 'The Battles of Trenton and Princeton,' by William S. Stryker; 'Letters to George Washington, 1752-1761,' mostly unpublished, a first volume, edited by S. M. Hamilton; 'A History of the Presidency,' by Edward Stanwood, a making over of this author's standard 'History of Presidential Elections'; 'Samuel Edmund Sewall,' a descendant of the famous Chief Justice, and heir to all his virtues as well as to his legal profession, by Mrs. Nina Moore Tiffany; 'Reminiscences,' by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, together with a volume of her verse, 'From Sunset Ridge'; 'James Russell Lowell and his Friends,' by Edward Everett Hale, with numerous portraits and other illustrations; 'A Sculptor's Adventures in the Sunset Land,' by Capt. Edward Kemeys; 'A World of Green Hills' (Virginia and North Carolina), by Bradford Torrey; 'Traditions of the Thompson River Indians of British Columbia,' collected by James Teit; 'Corona and Coronet,' an account of the Amherst expedition to Japan in 1896 to observe the sun's eclipse, by Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd; 'Annals of the Lowell Observatory,' volume i.: 'On Tides,' the Lowell Lectures in Boston last winter by George H. Darwin; 'The Magic of the Horseshoe, with Other Folk-lore,' by Robert Means Lawrence, M.D.; 'A Century of Indian Epigrams,' chiefly from the Sanskrit of Bhartrihari, by Paul E. More; 'The Bibliotaph, and Other People,' by Leon H. Vincent; 'Social Ideals in English Letters,' by Miss Vida D. Scudder; 'The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution,' volume ii., by Hannis Taylor; 'Select Essays on Dante,' by Karl Witte, translated by C. Mabel Lawrence; and 'Every-Day Butterflies,' by Samuel H. Scudder. For illustrated reprints we should add John Fiske's 'Beginnings of New England,' and Dickens's 'Child's History of England,' besides Cooper's 'Leather-Stocking Tales' in five volumes.

John Wiley & Sons have in press 'The Elements of Sanitary Engineering,' by Prof. Mansfield Merriman; 'Analysis of Potable Water,' by Prof. William P. Mason; 'The Theory of Electrical Measurement,' by Prof. William A. Anthony; 'The Law of Field Operation in Engineering, Surveys, etc.,' by John C. Wait; and 'A General Treatise on the Integral Calculus,' by Prof. W. Woolsey Johnson of the U. S. Naval Academy.

Macmillan Co. announce "The Churchman's Library," edited by John Henry Burn, B.D., and setting off with 'The Beginnings of English Christianity,' by Prof. W. E. Collins; 'Some New Testament Problems,' by Arthur Wright; 'Some Old Testament Problems,' by John P. Peters, D.D.; and 'The Kingdom of Heaven Here and Hereafter,' by Canon Winterbotham. They have also in preparation a series of 'New Testament Handbooks,' edited by Prof. Shailer Mathews of the University of Chicago, beginning with 'The History of the Textual Criticism of the New Testament,' by Prof. Marvin R. Vincent, and 'The History of the Higher Criticism of the New Testament,' by Prof. Henry S. Nash; 'The Control of the Tropics,' by Benjamin Kidd; and 'The Underground Railroad, from Slavery to Freedom,' by Prof. Wilbur H. Siebert of Ohio State University, with illustrations and a directory of more than 3,000 names of underground operators. The same firm advertises that it has bought out the business of Richard Bentley & Son, London, and will incorporate their well-known list in its own.

For issuance in October the Century Co. promise 'Educational Reform,' essays and addresses by President Eliot of Harvard; a volume on Cuba, by Robert T. Hill of the United States Geological Survey; 'A Primer of Heraldry for Americans,' by Prof. Edward S. Holden; 'The Book of the Ocean,' by Ernest Ingersoll; 'The World's Rough Hand: Toil and Adventure at the Antipodes,' by H. Phelps Whitmarsh; 'Our Conversational Circle,' by Miss Agnes H. Morton; 'Home Economics,' by Miss Maria Parloa; 'The Adventures of François,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; a new edition, in two volumes, with introduction by President Gilman of Johns Hopkins, of Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America'; and Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' illustrated by the brothers Rhead.

From Ginn & Co.'s list we select 'Introduction to the Study of Literary Criticism,' by Prof. Charles M. Gayley; 'A History of English Literature,' by Prof. Francis B. Gummere and Alfred C. Garrett; 'The Science of Discourse,' by Prof. Arnold Tompkins; 'The Student's American History,' by D. H. Montgomery; 'Heroes of the Middle West,' by Mary Hartwell Catherwood; 'Colonial Life in New Hampshire,' by James H. Fassett; 'Method in History,' by Prof. William H. Mace; 'Brief German History,' by Profs. H. von Holst and B. S. Terry; 'The Ethics of Hobbes,' by Prof. E. Hershey Sneath; 'The World's Painters and their Pictures,' by Deristhe L. Hoyt; 'A Practical German Grammar,' by Prof. George Hempl; and the second part of his 'German Orthography and Phonology.'

August is dead to the publishing world, yet it brings us its promised volume in the Biographical Thackeray (Harpers). This is the 'Sketch Books,' being the Paris and Irish writings of that ilk, together with 'Cornhill to Cairo,' etc. Mrs. Ritchie's introduction shows how Thackeray's troubles were thickening upon him at the period, what with his wife's failing health and his own (partly consequent) pecuniary troubles. Yet "what won't a man bear with a little practice?" he wrote to Mrs. Procter. The drawings reproduced here are undistinguished, but the frontispiece portrait, after Maclise, of date about 1840, is a real addition to our knowledge of the man in his habit as he lived.

Macmillan Co. publish a translation of Prof. Böhm-Bawerk's essay entitled 'Karl Marx and the Close of his System.' This essay is one of a number prepared in 1896 as tributes to the aged Prof. Knies, and it is, so fas as style and logic go, worthy of its distinguished author. Whether Marx's theories are of sufficient importance to demand further criticisms is a doubtful question; but those who desire to understand them will find this essay of service.

Four lectures on 'Democracy and Social Growth in America,' by Prof. Bernard Moses, are published as a volume by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Prof. Moses calls attention to the fact that the Spaniards prohibited unmarried women from emigrating to their colonies, and thus encouraged the rise of mixed races incapable of a high degree of civilization. The English colonies are now inhabited by a mixture of races, but they had originally a much more homogeneous population. They also enjoyed much more freedom than the Spanish colonies, and the conditions were thus most favorable for the development of democracy. Prof. Moses argues, however, that the movement of population from the country to the city "not only makes the continued reign of democracy impossible, but even threatens the existence of civilization itself." The lectures, as this quotation indicates, are rather speculative, but furnish some interesting suggestions.

From the same publishers we have another essay in speculative politics, entitled 'The Philosophy of Government,' by George W. Walthew. The author considers that two mighty movements have hitherto been proceeding along the lines of human energy which appeared to be totally different from each other and intended to remain so. It has just been discovered that this separation is only apparent, and that the two movements are about to come together, with very important consequences. The movements referred to "comprise the thought, the experience, and the discoveries of mankind in the separate domains of philosophy and civil government." These domains are opposite to each other, one belonging to the realm of mind, the other to that of matter. For the details of this interesting (if true) discovery and its consequences to mankind we must refer our readers to the book itself.

'En Pique-Nique 1898' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) is the annual volume published by the Société des Gens de Lettres, and consists of stories, sketches, and verses by a number of writers, of whom Marcel Prévost and Émile Zola are the best known. It is not a violent supposition that the various contributors sent in only such matter as was not readily marketable elsewhere, for there is nothing in the contents that is not commonplace or trite. The most amusing piece is "Ministre et Paysan," by Léo Claretie.

'Angoisses de Juge,' by Masson-Forestier (Colin), is a collection of short stories, of which there is not much to be said except that they are harmless, and that they are composed in the "realistic" manner, which consists in heaping together a mass of details of no importance or relevancy, much as might be done by a newspaper reporter who is paid by space.

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'L'Amour est Mon Péché' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is by the author of 'Amitié Amoureuse,' a volume which created something of a sensation, and was, by some hasty critics, attributed to Guy de Maupassant. The present work manifests unusual power and literary skill. In form it is the diary of a high-strung and high-bred French girl who comes of a noble but impoverished family, and is constrained by her necessities to accept a position as governess and companion in an aristocratic English household. Its interest hinges on the one topic that furnishes forth the staple of French fiction; but this inevitable feature is kept out of sight so long that the reader might go through two-thirds of the story under the agreeable delusion that he had at last found a French novel which was inoffensive without being inane. Another original trait is that the author holds up to real and not to hypocritical reprobation the sin he depicts, and thereby gains for his book a moral dignity which is infrequent in Gallic literature.

'Die Verwirrung der Kunstbegriffe,' by Wilhelm Trübner (Frankfort: Literarische Anstalt), is a little work which owes its origin to the growing tendency of many contemporary painters to break away from conventionalism, and to strive after greater independence of artistic conception and representation. It is calculated to throw light upon various phases of modern art, and deserves to be as favorably received as was the same author's 'Das Kunstverständniss von Heute,' published anonymously half-a-dozen years ago.

The sixteenth annual report of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass. (Boston: Ginn & Co.), tells of a prosperous year, and shows the Society's collection of books to have trebled in the past twelve or thirteen years. The number of volumes now exceeds 2,000. The rest of the report is divided between Theodore W. Koch's list of additions from 1895 to 1897, and a valuable collation of Prof. Rajna's critical text of the 'De Vulgari Eloquentia' with Dr. Moore's Oxford text of 1894, by Paget Toynbee. Prof. Rajna's text has been reëdited by himself, and the results are given in an appendix. Amusing is the way a Tuscan scribe garbles the title to Book I., chapter 13, in which Dante stigmatized the Tuscan dialect as preëminent for its baseness. The scribe substituted *excelens* for *turpissimum*, perhaps.

The committee of Italian scholars who have in charge the preparation for the twelfth International Congress of Orientalists is evidently determined to get ready in time. The convention has been appointed for the first two weeks in October, 1899, and will be held in Rome. Several weeks ago a Preliminary Appeal was issued, and this is now followed by a First Bulletin, in which comparatively complete reports are given on the prospective work of the congress. The Bulletin states that there will be twelve different sections, one of them (that on India) being divided into two branches. Special sub-committees, representing the various Italian universities, have been appointed for the several sections, and in many cases two and three committees for sub-sections in one chief department. The Bulletin contains also letters from prominent scholars in England, France, Germany, and Italy, promising co-operation. During the session papers may be read and discussions held in Italian, Latin, French, German, and English, and for international correspondence the French has been selected. The Bulletin is in this language. Further preparatory reports will be published in December.

The Riga *Tageblatt* publishes extracts from a series of educational articles written by the School Curator of the Caucasus district that illustrates the peculiar phases of higher education in Russia. The Curator says: "So many lectures must be attended by the student that it is impossible for him to devote his attention to any particular branch in which he may be specially interested. If he has an inclination to specialism, he cannot follow this inclination before the completion of the regular university course, and it is not every student who is so situated that he can do this. The superficiality thus engendered affects his whole life work." The Curator points out the fact that the academic year in the university course of Russia, if the time devoted to examinations be deducted, really covers only five or six months, and that the professors, in order at least nominally and formally to cover their subjects, are compelled to crowd into this short period an altogether too large number of lectures. He also complains that there are so many examinations that the time for lectures is unduly curtailed. It seems, however, that Russian educators are preparing to do away with some of these evils. In the Moscow district a number of examinations have already been abolished, and a conference of the directors of the technical schools has asked for further changes in this direction.

The *Geographical Journal* for August contains a paper by Dr. Sir John Murray on the annual range of temperature in the surface waters of the ocean, which is largely a commentary on the accompanying map. Upon this the ocean is divided by colors into five great zones, to represent intervals of 10 degrees Fahrenheit of range of temperature, while lines are drawn for intervals of 5 degrees Fahrenheit. In closing, the writer treats briefly of the relation of range of temperature to biological phenomena, and especially to the destruction of life, as of the tile-fish on our coasts in 1882. In an account of an exploration in 1897 of some Spitsbergen glaciers, Sir. W. Martin Conway develops a theory of glacial action by which he attempts to explain some of the natural features of certain Alpine and Himalayan valleys. He also dwells upon the necessity of distinguishing between the action of an ice-sheet and a glacier. "Under an ice-sheet, the forces acting on the land-surface are conservative"—that is, the moving ice does little beyond polishing the surface of the rock it covers. "In the case of a glacial region the acting forces are formative."

The death is announced of the Danish composer Emil Hartmann. Born in Copenhagen, February 21, 1836, he came of a remarkable musical family. His father, J. E. P. Hartmann, who is still living at the age of ninety-three, is an even more popular composer in Denmark than the son; his grandfather was an organist, and his great-grandfather, a Silesian by birth, enjoyed considerable vogue in Copenhagen as a composer during the latter part of the eighteenth century. Apart from his work as a composer, Hartmann's life was almost wholly uneventful. In 1861 he was appointed organist at St. John's Church in Copenhagen, and ten years later he was transferred to the Palace Church, where he remained until his death. For a short time he directed the Music Society of Copenhagen. His compositions (in all forms), which enjoy special favor in Germany, show great variety, though almost all share the Northern coloring that distinguishes the works of his brother-in-law Gade and his father. He was remarkably successful as an orchestral leader, and appeared frequently at concerts both at home and abroad. In Denmark Emil Hartmann suffered in reputation from being the son of his father.

—For many years Mr. William Spohn Baker was an ardent collector of Washingtoniana, and late in life he began to use this material in compilations designed to assist others in following Washington's career almost from day to day. The last of the series, 'Washington After the Revolution,' was fortunately completed before Mr. Baker's death, and now appears in book form, a worthy companion to the earlier issues (Philadelphia: Lippincott). Without reference to the connection of events, a note is made of the more important incidents in Washington's private and official life from 1784 to 1799, and the record is generally in Washington's own words. A few impressions of contemporaries are included, and fewer reminiscences of those writing long after the events. It would be unkind to criticise too closely the mode of selection, for a genial tone runs through the volume and rather adds to the personal interest. The man receives more attention than passing events, and it is Washington as a farmer, a land speculator, an undertaker of canal improvements, a President and Lieutenant-General that is emphasized. The real history of the day is passed over, and the political intrigues that were carried on around Washington have no attraction for the compiler. Where the President dined or attended the theatre; how he behaved at a levée or impressed a visitor; what success attended him in fox-hunting, and what places he visited in his tours to the East and South, are recorded with a fulness leaving little to require. The more serious topics must be sought elsewhere.

—Naturally there is much of curious interest in these disconnected jottings. On a journey to his Western lands, Washington does not visit his people on a Sunday because they were "apparently very religious." During the sittings of the Constitutional Convention he goes to see a mangle at Dr. Franklin's, and gravely notes, "which Machine from the facility with which it despatches business is well calculated for Table cloths & such articles as have not pleats & irregular foldings, and would be very useful in all large families." The model of Rumsey's steamboat hardly excited greater interest in him. On a Sunday he sends his "two Jackasses to the Election at Marlborough in Maryland, that they might be seen"—a feature of elections long since abandoned. When making his Eastern tour, he received an invitation to attend the funeral of the wife of a New York Senator, but "declined complying with it—first, because the propriety of accepting any invitation of this sort appeared very questionable—and secondly, (though to do it in this instance might not be improper), because it might be difficult to discriminate in cases which might hereafter happen." The comment on attending morning service at the Dutch Reformed Church may be placed next: "which, being in that

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language [Dutch] not a word of which I understood I was in no danger of becoming a proselyte to its religion by the eloquence of the preacher." Attempts at humor on Washington's part were very infrequent and were very grim indeed. It may be noticed that Mr. Baker includes the exhibition of temper over St. Clair's defeat, although Mr. Morse has given proof that the story is untrue. The account of the Randolph incident is too partial to Randolph. The copyists of the Diaries have played strange pranks with names, and for this Mr. Baker cannot be held responsible.

—An obituary notice of the late Thomas Sterry Hunt, by James Douglas, has been reprinted from the memorial volume of the American Philosophical Society. One of the most versatile and distinguished men of science of his generation, Hunt's posthumous reputation has suffered from the effects of his controversial disposition, while his really great contributions to the chemistry of geology are appreciated only by a select few. He was born September 5, 1826, in Norwich, Conn., and died in New York February 12, 1892, after a lingering illness which he supported with the utmost fortitude. He was a natural student, and rose, from almost menial duties as a boy, by unswerving application and native genius, to a position of acknowledged distinction in the scientific world. From an assistant in Silliman's laboratory he passed to the position of chemist and mineralogist to the Geological Survey of Canada, became professor of chemistry in the Laval University and subsequently in McGill University, and later professor of geology in the Boston Institute of Technology. He became a fellow of the Royal Society and a member of the National Academy of Sciences, and was made chevalier and officer of the Legion of Honor, among many other testimonials to his scientific eminence. Perhaps his most interesting contribution to applied science was his invention of the sesquioxide of chromium ink, as a safeguard against counterfeiters, which, first employed in Canada, has penetrated the civilized world on the "greenbacks" of the United States. Mr. Douglas's memoir is written in excellent taste, and, without concealing the foibles of its subject, justly insists on the ardor and courage with which Hunt met their consequences, and the importance of his contributions to science. Of these the bibliography, appended to the paper, covers seventeen pages.

—A volume of travels of rather exceptional merit is the work of Paul Rohrbach, entitled 'In Turan und Armenien' (Berlin: G. Stilke). The subtitle, "Auf den Pfaden russischer Weltpolitik," prepares one for matter of interest not only to the Oriental archæologist, but to the student of the problems and perplexities of modern world politics. The author was exceptionally well fitted for his task, by a good acquaintance with the historical ups and downs of the districts visited—mainly from the neighborhood of the Caspian Sea to Samarkand, Bokhara, and Merv, as well as by his ability to use the Russian language as easily as a native. He explains the almost phenomenal success of the Russians in spreading their influence in these territories by their ability patiently to adapt themselves to the peculiarities of Oriental nationalities, including the Moslem peoples. His observations confirm a general opinion that Russia's civilizing mission finds its proper sphere of operation in Asia, and not in Europe. On the vexed question as to the noble or ignoble character of the martyr nation of Armenians, the author reports that the small merchant minority of the Armenians, with whom other Orientals and Europeans come in contact, amply deserve the bad reputation they bear, but that, as regards fully 90 per cent. of the Armenians, the conviction expressed by Moltke half a century ago must be upheld, namely, that they are a peaceable and industrious peasant and shepherd population, and politically perfectly harmless.

HEARNIUS REDIVIVUS.

Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. IV. (Dec. 15, 1712—Nov. 30, 1714). Edited by D. W. Rannie, M.A. Oxford: Printed for the Oxford Historical Society, at the Clarendon Press. New York: Henry Frowde. 1898.

Not only are we compelled to place a Latin title at the head of this article, it is with difficulty that we refrain from attempting to write of Hearne in the language which he regarded as the proper dialect of scholars. When treating of trivial, every-day affairs, English is good enough for him, but let it be the important question of a rare coin in the Ray collection at the "Bodlejan," and he at once drops the vulgar for the learned tongue. "In Bibl. Bodl. habemus nummum argenteum Balbini, in cujus parte aversa legitur FIDES MVTVA AVG G CC. Hunc non habet Occo. Nec quidem alibi inveni." How can one communicate the flavor of such a man, unless he use the medium of communication which served the grammarians and antiquaries of 200 years ago? They were pickled in the brine of academic Latin (that there was not much *Attic* salt in Oxford when Hearne came to it the Phalaris controversy will witness), and it has preserved them well, if any one cares to search for them in the museum. Briefly, Hearne is unknown outside the small circle of amateur and professional bookworms, who would probably prefer a Latin discourse on him to an English essay.

When we term this circle of bookworms "small," we apply the word relatively. The bibliography of fifty years past shows that a considerable number of people still exist who will buy Hearne's books and books about him. In 1848 a 'Bibliotheca Hearniana,' or excerpts from Hearne's Catalogue, appeared; in 1857 Dr. Philip Bliss published 'Reliquiæ Hearnianæ,' a series of excerpts from his diaries, and this anthology, having found its way into a second edition, 1869, is given an honored place on the shelves of the students who own it; finally, in 1884, the Oxford Historical Society began its publications with the Register of the University, Vol. I., and Hearne's Collections, Vol. I. To be granted precedence of Anthony Wood, and that in Oxford itself, would be a distinction worth putting to our antiquary's credit if we could be sure that he was not taken up first on the grounds of bulk and editorial difficulty. Certainly the task of selecting from and editing his hundred-odd MS. volumes of diary has till now made but moderate progress. In the fourteenth year from the outset, we receive the fourth volume, and an interval of nine years separates it from vol. iii. This tedious delay, however, can be accounted for by a change of editors. Mr. Doble, a very accomplished expert, having brought down the notes and journals from July 4, 1704, to December 14, 1712, was forced to relinquish the task, and his successor, Mr. Rannie, has doubtless found that the first step costs a good deal. But though the labor of choice, transcription, and annotation has been slow, its fruit is excellent, and for our own part we are not sorry to resume the subject at greater length than we should had the sequence of volumes been more rapid.

One characteristic of the true antiquary is that he goes through life without ever being young. Hearne's boyhood was spent in learning Latin, he took his Oxford B.A. at twenty-one and at twenty-three he was an assistant in the Bodleian, where he employed what leisure he could snatch in voluntarily correcting the catalogue. The point at which the present instalment of his diary starts is 1712. He had then risen to be assistant keeper and janitor of his beloved library, ingeniously securing the latter post in order to range the building free from every hindrance. He was still at a lusty age, thirty-four, yet no token of exuberance rises to the surface unless he is required to slate a piece of bad scholarship, or to register his scorn of some time-server who has renounced allegiance to the Stuarts. Modern Oxford boasts that whereas the German universities produce scholars, she produces statesmen. Hearne, despite his allegiance to a lost cause, was no statesman nor politician; but he was a scholar like him of Stacey Marks's picture, or of whom Southey sings: "My days among the dead are past."

The early eighteenth century can muster a fairly large band of devotees to *literæ humaniores* and archæology—men who watched the seething and churning rapid of human action from the bank, yet who in a literary sense may be called belated humanists. Many of them preferred the acquisition of knowledge to its diffusion or transference from one book to another, and, if they happened to command independent means, published little, sometimes nothing. Hearne was of a different disposition. He had within certain limits a utilitarian instinct, and wished to contribute his share to the common store of erudition. Writing July 13, 1713, to one who had sent him a present of six guineas (presumably to assist in the publication of unremunerative books) he says: "Tho' I have not those Abilities w^{ch} might capacitate me for doing great things, yet I am sensible that I have a good Intention, and that I have accordingly applyed my self to do as much publick service as can be exspected from Persons in my mean Circumstances." And one is glad that his infinite industry had its reward; for, quite apart from any value we may assign to these diaries and to his editions of Leland, the series of English mediæval historians which he issued held the field till this last generation. It is perhaps fortunate that Hearne belonged to a sect of political pariahs, the Non-jurors, for thus he escaped the misfortune of excessive attention. His curiosity was so general that, once courted by patrons of the classics, he might have been altogether deflected from the department of English antiquities, where he was sorely needed.

Readers of Mark Pattison's 'Memoirs' will remember how minutely, how seriously, and indeed how bitterly he describes an election at Lincoln College which resulted in the success of his rival. He was afterwards chosen Rector and enjoyed a long tenure of

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the position without being able, when as an old man he wrote his candid reflections, to forget the anguish or injury of that episode. One can see from Hearne's Diary that the same eager interest in Oxford politics prevailed then. The University is a microcosm, and from Bernard Gardiner, Warden of All Souls and Vice-Chancellor, to Bodley's janitor, every citizen of the academic commonwealth is wedded to it. What need to look abroad? Even Cambridge is of slight consideration in comparison. On November 17, 1714, Hearne writes to B. Willis:

"The Fellowships are not better endowed at Cambridge than at Oxford. Nor can I be persuaded that their Gardens and Walks are preferable. Indeed there is no Comparison between the two Universities either for Beauty, or Pleasure, or for the Goodness of the Air. And tho' Kings College Chapell exceeds any of our Chapells, yet when we excell them on so many other Accounts, it will not (as I take it) be proper from this only Building to think that that University may be compared with ours."

Having touched on Hearne as a born student of antiquities and as a scion of Oxford's own nurture, let us see how his character, principles, and occupations are illustrated by his Remarks and Correspondence for 1712-14. It matters little that those who occupy most space in this journal are not great public personages, and that the events which most affected Hearne caused no stir in the world. His friends and enemies were real to him, and he has left a detailed, peculiar recital of them. There is room in human sympathy for every kind of nature which is not purely sordid; but lives pass away as fast as Oriental imagery says they do, and the faithful portrait is seldom preserved. We cannot believe that Hearne's 'Collections' will ever become a biographical classic in the popular sense. At the same time, by virtue of fulness and authenticity, they belong to a select class of writings, for which no apology need be offered by editor or reviewer.

Of the personal losses which Hearne suffered during this period, Francis Cherry's death was the most severe. He had discovered Hearne, provided for his schooling, sent him to Oxford, and given him his nonjuring principles. Friendship with Dodwell had been another bond between them, and patron almost equalled client in his zeal for learning. It would be over-sentimental to speak of the blow falling heavily on Hearne, for he shows us no sign of excessive grief. Either his daily intercourse with the record of past mutability had disciplined him to stoicism, or his temperament inclined him to esteem and reverence rather than to ardent affection. At least one must acquit him of any desire to shirk the recognition of his debt to Cherry. He did not belong to the *servum pecus* who forget their benefits. In registering Cherry's death he praises among other qualities his modesty, and then continues:

"But tho' he desired that his Name upon that Account might not be made use of, yet this must be remembred of him that 'tis to this Gentleman's Liberality that the Writer of these Matters owes his Education, he having maintained him for some time not only at School and in his own House, but for several Years in the University, even 'till such time as he took the Degree of Master in Arts, all at his own proper Expense."

Cherry lived and died at Shottesbrooke, a village of Berkshire, in which Dodwell had also settled after he lost his Camden professorship of history at Oxford. Here he produced his best work, 'De Cyclis Veterum,' a treatise warmly praised by Gibbon, and in Hearne's eyes nothing short of "elaborate and immortal." We mention the friendship between Cherry and Dodwell because Hearne was closely connected with the one, and his admiration for the other drew him into an exciting tilt with the Oxford authorities. In the winter of 1713 he edited a discourse of Dodwell's entitled 'De Parma Equestri Woodwardiana,' adding some remarks of his own. The book gave offence, was suppressed, and Hearne had the satisfaction of feeling himself the honest victim of tyranny and prejudice. The case has a good many ramifications, and may be singled out as the striking incident of this volume.

The root of the trouble was not Dodwell's text; it was Hearne's praise of Dodwell and his strictures on Dr. Milles, the Bishop of Waterford and Lismore. The Heads of Houses met in the Apodyterium, and summoned Hearne from the Library. When he appeared, he was put in possession of the charges against him. They were: "(1.) That he had called Mr. Dodwell a Conscientious Non-Juror. (2.) That he had called one of his Discourses aureus tractatus. (3.) That he had signified that vir quidam mediocriter doctus had written two Books in Defence of Mr. Dodwell's principles about the deprived Bps. (one whereof was published an. 1698, with this Title, Remarks on the Occasional Paper, numb. VIII) & that he had not long after changed his Opinion on purpose to get Preferm't. Mr. Hearne was urged to retract what he had said, but this he absolutely refused; upon which they suppressed his Book." Two hundred and forty copies had been printed, and forty-three sold, before action was taken. Hearne bore the risk of the venture, and lost about £60 by it, which he could ill spare for the sake of an unpleasant notoriety.

But an epitome of the complaints brought against this stiff-necked Non-juror, and of their results, by no means covers the ground. Hearne's own detailed narrative of the circumstances (with its analysis of his opponents' motives) is the thing. This occupies practically a whole volume of his MS. —equivalent in print to twenty-three large octavo pages—and is styled, "About Suppressing my Book, and the Occasion of it."

On February 20, 1712-13, "being Friday, a little before 10 Clock," Mr. Keil, Savilian Professor of Astronomy, entered the Bodleian attended by one Mr. Mollineux, an Irish gentleman. They wished to see "the most considerable Curiosities," and Hearne displayed manuscripts and coins, ignorant at first that Mr. Mollineux was "a Man of those very bad Principles, and that debauched Understanding, as I have since found him by experience to be." He asked in a pretentious way "whether we had a Brass Otho, a Pertinax, and other Coyns of that nature, such, I mean as are look't upon by good Antiquaries as spurious?" He soon proved his ignorance of numismatics. "Yet he had not as yet discovered himself to be a Man of Republican, ill Principles, and of a malignant Temper, 'till we came to the Anatomy Schoole." Here Hearne pointed out an engraving of Benjamin Hoadley "hanging there with Horns and Wings." Or, as he was careful to state: "This Picture many had said was Benjamin Hoadley, the seditious Divine of London; but for my part, I gave no other Description of it than this, that 'twas the Picture of one of the greatest Presbyterian, Republican, Antimonarchical, Whiggish, Fanatical Preachers living in England." Shortly after, still not perceiving that Mollineux was a Whig, Hearne brought out a second print; "the Picture of a beautifull young Man over the Head of which was ΕΙΚΩΝ ΒΑΣΙΛΙΚΗ. and underneath *Quid quaeritis ultra.*" Once more he was on his guard, and did not tell the visitors that they were looking at the Pretender, but merely showed it "as a thing excellently well done." Unfortunately Mollineux was more concerned with the political than with the artistic significance of the print, and straightway informed. The Vice-Chancellor took alarm, rebuked Hearne privately, and then hastened to aim a blow at him by way of his book.

Another amusing story springs out of the third charge cited above, namely, that Hearne had made an improper reference to the Bishop of Waterford and Lismore as *vir quidam mediocriter doctus*, etc. At the meeting which condemned the book the President of Corpus objected to reflections on a bishop. This opened the door for Hearne to clear off an old score against Dr. Milles, dating from his edition of St. Cyril. "I told them that he owed me money for the 3 Indexes to St. Cyrill which I drew up, and for wch he would never pay me more than 2 Guineas, tho' 5 was his own voluntary Offer, & what was agreed upon betwixt us; and I might have said other things, but I was not willing to trouble them." Although he hesitated to tell the Heads of Houses, he tells us every last detail; how Milles offered him five guineas for doing the *Index Auctorum* and the *Index Rerum*, and how of his own accord he contributed an *Index locorum Scripturæ*. Next, how, after much delay and importunity, he got two guineas of his pay, and finally how he would have secured a legal judgment but for the persuasion of Dr. Hudson. The digression is five closely printed pages in length, and concludes: "All these Particulars one would think considered together might have influenced our Heads to pass by what I had said of Milles unregarded, had it been much more."

Unflagging industry, devotion to scholarship, and ability to restrict his wants are among Hearne's unmistakable traits. He was such another man as Chaucer's Clerk of Oxenford, though spending what he could get less on the purchase than on the editing of books. In 1712 he has just finished Leland's 'Itinerary,' and is proceeding to the 'Collectanea.' By July 31, 1714, he is feeling his way towards his most useful enterprise, the mediæval chroniclers. "Leland's Collectanea is in great Forwardness. When that is done I have thoughts of printing Tully's Works. I had once a design of printing some of our English Historians not yet published, whereof we have several in Bodley. But our Governours here have almost discouraged me by an Order they made, when they prosecuted me, against transcribing MSS." One author finished, another is started. Hearne was not a great historian, nor a great editor, but he was a great antiquary.

These collections are a magazine, nay, a warehouse, of pungent diatribe against University Whigs, and of curious garnerings-in from books. We conclude by quoting an item from each class. The first relates to a piece of promotion, which "one Salmon, A. M. & Fellow of Oriel," had received:

"Salmon is a very starch'd white-livered Republican. He pretends to great Sanctity of Life. He drinks always Water & hath no Arts nor Learning. He preaches by heart, & makes horrid work of it. He catechizes

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the Children of St. Peter's, making them use that vile, wretched Catechism published by Burnett, Bp. of Sarum, with whom Salmon is said to be great."

Lastly, we subjoin statistics of a feast which seems to outdo rich Camacho's wedding:

"A Feast Mad [at Reading] Bye Mr. Calver, July 29 [no year]. 1 Ox 19 fatt Sheep 5 Buck 7 Calves 3 Lambs 100 fatt Duckes 100 Rabbits 100 poulates 10 pigs 7 fliches of Bacon 20 Barrels of Bear 50 Dozen Bottels of Wine 1000 half peack Loaves 3 guines to ye Biggars. Lost 24 Dozen knives and forkes and a great Del of Linin and a great many Bottels. Y^e treat for y^e women was y^e 6 of August and that was as mutch as y^e men's or more and som of [them] did tack a Littell to mutch."

Lovers of Hearne's Diaries should be warned by the fate of these convivial and intemperate ladies.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SUGGESTION.

The Psychology of Suggestion. By Boris Sidis, M.A., Ph.D., Associate in Psychology at the Pathological Institute of the New York State Hospitals. With an Introduction by Prof. William James. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 386.

An interesting book is this in more ways than one, beginning with the title-page, for it marks a stadium in the progress, both of psychology and of medicine, that the need of such an official as an "Associate in Psychology" should have been felt and filled in the Pathological Institute of the New York State Hospitals. It speaks well for that institution. It is interesting, too, to meet with so signal a vindication of the appointment as is afforded by the successful treatment of the extraordinary and interesting case of the Rev. Thomas Carson Hanna. This gentleman, of superior endowments and accomplishments, when he came to himself after a carriage accident, was like one new born. He had clean lost all knowledge, all passion, all voluntary activity. He was bereft of every vestige of familiarity with everything, had no suspicion that the sounds of speech had any meaning, never thought of the persons about him as persons, had no consciousness of self as such, and did not look upon the external world as real. When, after a few weeks, he had begun to use his hands, he had become ambidextrous. His logical acumen returned very early, while he was still in passional innocence, was asking the meaning of the simplest words, and wondering at the most every-day matters. The extraordinary rapidity with which he acquired and applied new knowledge, his keen sense of music and symmetry, and the significant fact that he learned English in a few weeks, and pronounced it well and correctly, confirmed Dr. Sidis in his first impression that the old personality had not been crushed to death, but had only been dissevered from conscious life, still in great measure swaying the newly-formed personality from the subconscious depths of being.

In order to "tap the subconscious self," the patient was questioned about his dreams. It turned out that, besides ordinary dreams, he had "clear picture dreams," which were in reality fragments of his former life, although he did not recognize them, but thought them very strange. Thus, in one of them, he saw a house with these letters on it: N E W B O S-T O N J U N C. He had lately learned to read the word NEW; but the other letters were entirely unintelligible to him. Latent memory being thus proved, the problem was to bring it up into connection with consciousness. This was gradually accomplished by means of a method, due to Dr. Sidis, which he calls *hypnoidization*, and which is described. At length he was brought into a condition of double consciousness, complete amnesia separating the two states. Finally, by means of a method for an account of which we are referred to a subsequent publication, the two states were run into one. "The patient is now perfectly well and has resumed his vocation." There have lately been some further reports which confirm this statement.

The main purpose of the book professes to be to show that every man has a double personality—the one person dominant and self-conscious, the other subordinate and subconscious. This is not a theory towards which psychologists will antecedently incline; nor will they accept the evidences here adduced as at all sufficient. That the subconscious part of the mind makes up a unitary self will not readily be admitted.

The work is divided into three parts entitled Suggestibility, The Self, Society. The middle part occupies more than half the volume and is the centre of the author's thought. To this the chapters on suggestibility are introductory. "Suggestibility" is the Nancy word for that docility, or, if you please, that incitability, which is so exaggerated in the hypnotic trance, but of which everybody, especially an agreeable and sympathetic person, has a large share. This faculty, or state of mind, was first assigned as the main secret of the ordinary phenomena of hypnotism as long ago as 1845 by the American itinerant lecturer Grimes. But he was not an academic person, and was naturally ignored. He proposed the word "credenciveness" as the scientific name for the universal incitability of which we are speaking, briefly defining it as "that conforming social propensity whose natural stimulus is an assertion," but not neglecting to describe all its principal effects. "Credenciveness," he says, "is the key to most of the wonderful experiments of Buchanan and Sunderland, of Braid, Hall, and Elliotson." We may add that, by reducing Consciousness to the rank of a special faculty, Grimes paved the way to the modern doctrine of the subconscious mind. Modern psychology is suffering grievously from the lack of a precise and consistent terminology. The experience of other sciences shows that the only possible basis for a universally accepted scientific terminology lies in a strict adherence to the rule that the word proposed as the scientific designation of a concept by the discoverer who first introduces that concept into science, shall be adopted unless there are very solid objections to it. The word "credenciveness" is not particularly apt, because it does not obviously imply a tendency to action, although it was so understood by Grimes. On the other hand, the word "suggestibility"—aside from its awkwardness in seeming to substitute "facility to be suggested" in place of "facility to receive suggestions," and aside from its implying no tendency to action, but only the calling of an idea into notice—is seriously objectionable for the reason that "suggestion" was already an accepted term of psychology, and a quite indispensable one, in a totally different sense, before it was applied to hypnotic incitation. Namely, Hartley and the English associationalists, men whose own distinguished courtesy and freedom from insolence towards all philosophers—not to speak of their scientific merits—must command the same treatment from men who really respect themselves, desired to appropriate the word "suggestion" to the calling up to the surface of consciousness of one idea by another idea associated with it. No term could be more apt; nor is it pleasing to see the terminology established by these masters hustled aside by their inferiors.

The first part of Dr. Sidis's book, then, is concerned with the laws of credenciveness, or incitability. He argues that its general law is, "Suggestibility varies as the amount of disaggregation, and inversely as the unification of consciousness." We are glad to find he uses the term "disaggregation" and not "dissociation"; for the implication of the latter term, that the phenomenon consists solely in the abrogation of habits of association of ideas, is incorrect. Both words were used by M. Pierre Janet, to whom the recognition of the importance of the matter is due. In ordinary parlance, we call it distraction of mind. For example, an artist who eats his luncheon while he paints, and in his absorption puts his pigment into his mouth, and without remarking its bad taste, yet spits it out unconsciously, exhibits a disaggregation of consciousness. It consists in the cutting of communications between two parts of the mind which are occupied with different matters. Drowsiness and slumber are conditions of extensive disaggregation.

The mathematical form in the phraseology of the statement we have quoted, which is repeated in all Dr. Sidis's formulations, is here and elsewhere quite meaningless, and is calculated greatly to repel all students of the mathematical sciences. If that be eliminated, there is nothing at all new in the statement, as Dr. Sidis's earnest tone of argumentation would lead one to suppose he thought there was. Everybody knows that if, while a man is writing out a check, he is carrying on a lively correspondence about a Rothschild, he may sign that name to the check instead of his own. What seems more original, in Dr. Sidis's account of the matter, is that he represents the credenciveness of waking persons and of hypnotic subjects as if they followed diametrically opposite laws, which he prints in parallel columns, thus:

THE LAW OF ABNORMAL SUGGESTIBILITY.	THE LAW OF NORMAL SUGGESTIBILITY.
Abnormal suggestibility varies as direct suggestion, and inversely as indirect suggestion.	Normal suggestibility varies as indirect suggestion, and inversely as direct suggestion.

But this seems to be merely an effect of exaggerated expression. Dr. Sidis would, we may hope, not himself maintain that the phenomena were really of fundamentally contrary characters; for this would subvert the whole doctrine of his book. It is merely that, the hypnotic subject being in a state of extreme mental disaggregation, we can give him sharp commands without fear that they will evoke the rebellion of another part of his mind which they never reach, while because of his disaggregation sharp commands are required. With a waking person, on the contrary, not sharp command but an underhand mode of incitement is requisite in order to avoid offending his egotistical susceptibilities. It would be quite unjust, and would show little power of weighing evidence, to say that the experiments in this part of the book are insuffi-

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cient to establish a proposition so thoroughly borne out by all our ordinary experience and instinctive knowledge of human nature. We do not doubt, though, that a good many psychologists will make just that criticism.

When, in commencing part ii., we find Dr. Sidis maintaining that what went before, the substance of which we have indicated, affords "strong proof" of there being "two selves within the frame of the individual," that is, that the subconscious parts of the mind are unified as if by a controlling consciousness, we are amazed at the width of his leap. But what are we to say when we find such experiments as the following put forth as "facts which directly and explicitly [note the inexactitude of this word] prove the same truth"? Upon the nose of an hysterical patient who complains of blindness of one eye, is placed a pair of spectacles of which the two glasses do not both transmit the light of any one part of the spectrum. (The author says of "complementary colors," but that is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition.) The patient is then asked to read an inscription of which every other letter is covered by the one kind of glass and the others by glass of the other kind; so that, to each eye, half the letters must be invisible. The patient, however, promptly reads the whole. This proves that the patient has a preconceived idea that she is blind of one eye, which idea, acting upon her credenciveness, leads her to say (no doubt, to herself, as well as to others) that she does not see with that eye. But in what way does this begin to show that all the subconscious parts of the mind are organized into a single self?

When we find that all the facts adduced are equally impertinent, we begin to think that, just as Dr. Sidis overstated his own position in part i., so here in part ii. he does not really mean to say that there are just two selves in every man, but only that the conscious and subconscious parts of the mind are related to one another *somewhat* as the two selves of a patient with double personality. But if this is the case, he has no scientifically definite and novel proposition to enunciate; for everybody has perceived that there was *some* degree of analogy between the two classes of phenomena. It may be somewhat closer than has been supposed; but no contribution to science will have been made until we are informed definitely in what respect the analogy is close. Although it is not a positive contribution to science, however, the array of facts in this part of the book is striking and suggestive (if we may be allowed to use this word without being understood to mean "incitive to action").

In part iii. the author gives a slight account of some of those mental epidemics of which several French writers, beginning with Moreau, have made admirable studies. That the mob self is a subconscious self is obvious. It is quite true, too, as Dr. Sidis says, that America is peculiarly subject to epidemic mental seizures. In fact, it may be said that democracy, as contrasted with autocracy—and especially government by public opinion and popular sentiment as expressed in newspapers—is government by the irrational element of man. To discover how this can be cured, as a practical, realized result, without the ends of government being narrowed to the good of an individual or class, is our great problem. Prof. James seems to think this third part of the book is the best. We will defer to his judgment; but certainly a great subject here remains almost virgin ground for a writer of power.

The Two Duchesses. Family Correspondence of and relating to Georgiana Duchess of Devonshire, Elizabeth Duchess of Devonshire, [etc.] Edited by Vere Foster. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

One of the chief contributors to this volume of family correspondence is Frederick Augustus Hervey, Bishop of Derry and Earl of Bristol. He was a luxurious churchman, taking the sacred functions of his calling with much light-heartedness and finding his worst enemy in the gout. When he wished to travel, he had in his malady an excellent excuse, and he solaced himself by frequenting the mineral springs of Germany and Italy. It was from Pyrmont, in July, 1777, that he wrote thus to one of his daughters, Mrs. John Thomas Foster:

"The next question was with regard to company, and in that, too, we were fortunate, for there was no canaille, little bourgeoisie, and some persons, not only of great distinction, but of excellent dispositions, and the great parity that is maintained here among all persons gives this little place a spirit of elegant but easy republicanism that is very pleasing, and I am sure contributes much to the salutariness of the waters and of course to the recovery of the patients."

We might linger upon this passage to make game of the gay Bishop and the therapeutic value to him of association with the Prince of Waldeck and Augusta, Hereditary Princess of Brunswick; but our purpose in citing his words is to define the character of the whole volume. "A spirit of elegant but easy republicanism"—on the aristocratic basis—is pervasive, and in the course of 468 pages we meet "no canaille, little bourgeoisie" (a few, to be sure, in America), "and some persons, not only of great distinction, but of excellent dispositions." The Bishop gives us almost the exact phrases we need to use in describing the quality of his family circle.

The title recalls two women who a hundred years ago were eminent in Continental countries as well as in England. They were the successive wives of the fifth Duke of Devonshire, intimate friends, and each the centre of a notable group. The first Duchess, Georgiana, is universally celebrated because she dabbled with politics, and the Whig historian has made her the cynosure in one of his most glowing scenes. Macaulay, who gave great pains to the trial of Warren Hastings, selects her for the prominent figure among all the spectators. His climax mounts through peers, heroes, and members of the royal family to Siddons and Gibbon, Reynolds and Parr, before it reaches the queens of society. Of these, the third and final one, exalted above Mrs. Montague herself, is the Whig Duchess. The long paragraph closes with: "And there the ladies, whose lips, more persuasive than those of Fox himself, had carried the Westminster election against palace and treasury, shone round Georgiana Duchess of Devonshire." Elizabeth, the second Duchess, though unpolitical and therefore less vaunted of Clio, was attractive enough to rouse the ardor of Gibbon. He proposed marriage to her, and remained her admirer after she had refused him. "If she chose to beckon the Lord Chancellor from his woolsack in full sight of the world, he could not resist obedience," was his calm and impersonal verdict.

Equally for amusement and information these letters which Mr. Vere Foster has edited are to be read and valued. To proceed from the general to the particular, they depict the British oligarchy of that age in many and varied guises: at home and abroad, in the bosom of the family, and on the public stage, in peace and in war, in contentment and in vexation. Had Jane Austen been born a little higher in the social scale, she might have described these people to perfection as she has the members of the lesser gentry. The Bishop of Derry, from whom we have already quoted, is exactly the sort of man who would come out well in a novel. But he and his relatives far surpass the Bertrams of 'Mansfield Park,' the Tilneys of 'Northanger Abbey,' in grandeur; and Miss Austen never tried to portray the types outside her own ken. Fortunately this correspondence goes some distance towards preserving the features of the *haute noblesse* as she has fixed the *hobereaux*.

Without stating that England's best interests were served by a body of legislation which protected aristocratic privilege, we may feel glad that a large number of cultured and kind-hearted nobles were by the then existing tariffs given a magnificent chance to enjoy themselves. One may regret that their pleasure was gained at the expense of the agricultural laborer. In itself it was often innocent and sometimes picturesque. At any rate, when one is not directly or indirectly a sufferer, the record of it is attractive. Having a choice of pursuit, and money to throw out of the window, the eighteenth-century earl, marquis, or duke, if intelligent, took care to provide himself with rational occupation.

> " S'occuper, c'est savoir jouir,
> L'oisiveté pèse et tourmente;
> L'âme est un feu qu'il faut nourrir,
> Et qui s'éteint s'il ne s'augmente.

Good breeding considered as a work of art, the cultivation of social gifts, the finished entertainment of friends, and politics, including diplomacy, were legitimate means of spending the time, and all are illustrated here.

The Duchess Georgiana was a daughter of Earl Spencer; the Duchess Elizabeth, the daughter of the Earl of Bristol. Elizabeth Hervey was twice married, and as the editor is a descendant of her first husband, Mr. J. T. Foster, the memorials at his disposal bear less upon Georgiana than upon his grandmother. The intimacy of the two women was remarkable. Elizabeth's marriage with Mr. Foster ended unhappily, and after a separation from him she lived and travelled with Georgiana for nearly twenty-five years. The uncommon thing about the connection is the loving harmony of two great wits and beauties. Either of them was competent to hold a court; taken together, they were irresistible. Georgiana wrote English and French verses in praise of Elizabeth, and they united to compose an elegy on the death of a personal and political friend, James Hare. Georgiana died in 1806, and three years later the Duke—who could also turn a copy of couplets—married her friend. The last part of Elizabeth's life was spent in Rome, where her salon was the most crowded, cosmopolitan, and successful of the period. A recital in the preface of a few facts like these prepares one for a series of letters which contains examples of Gibbon, Sheridan, Fox, the Prince Regent, Gen. Moreau, Alexander of

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Russia, Canova, Thorwaldsen, and Capodistrias. Beside such historians, orators, artists, generals, and rulers, the Bishop of Derry is a minor figure, but by virtue of certain melodramatic traits he is worth his weight in gold to the lover of light literature. We cannot refrain from giving a snatch of the paean which, in 1797, he sends to his daughter from Potsdam when the guest of Frederick William II.:

"Sans Souci and Sans Souci for ever, my dearest Elizabeth! At last, on the thirtieth of October—Sunday noon—here I am truly worthy of this Philosophic Mansion, without care, and almost without thought, so consummately am I Germanized . . . At close of day we close our labours, and then here is our recompense:

Soupe.
Bouilli of duck or goose.
Mutton shoulder or leg.

and a large bowl of punch, in which we bury all fatigue, and at length all thought, and then, as the clock strikes eight, enter the warming pan, *et tout est dit*, and all night sleep in Elysium without one single ghost in our dreams."

The Historical MSS. Commission, we may be sure, would have rejoiced to lay hands upon these Hervey-Foster letters. Through good fortune they are published not in fine print and small quarto, but with the added attraction which comes from beauty of type, paper, and plates. We believe that they have permanent merit apart from their open and graceful style. Much might be said of their worth as historical material, but we prefer to insist that they are capital reading. Whoever approaches them from the side of literature will see before he has gone far that they are a contribution to history. They could easily be made to illustrate a dozen important points arising from the affairs of the period they cover, 1777-1821. We mention three only: English sentiment towards Napoleon in its progressive development, *passim*; the state of feeling in London after Nelson's death; Masséna's opinion of the Emperor as expressed to the Duchess Elizabeth. So satisfactory a bundle of family correspondence is seldom issued.

A Text-Book of Zoölogy. By T. Jeffery Parker [New Zealand] and W. A. Haswell [New South Wales]. Two volumes, pp. xxxv, 779; xx, 683; 1,173 figures [some colored]. Macmillan Co.

This work, the significance and usefulness of which must be unqualifiedly conceded, represents an enormous amount of labor upon the part of two experienced teachers, one of whom has died since its completion, probably in great part from the exhaustion attendant thereon. Nor would we underrate the admirable mechanical features of the work and the educational portent of the issue of so large and costly a text-book upon a single branch of natural history, while expressing a wish that both the bulk and the cost might have been diminished by putting more paragraphs into small type.

The intent and method of the authors are clearly set forth in the preface. After an introduction and a section upon "General Structure and Physiology" there are presented in turn the twelve phylums recognized, viz.: Protozoa, Porifera, Cœlenterata, Platyhelminths, Nemathelminths, Trochelminths, Molluscoida, Echinodermata, Annulata, Arthropoda, Mollusca and (occupying the whole of the second volume) Chordata, corresponding nearly with Vertebrates. The discussion of each class is based upon a more or less detailed account of the anatomy and development of one or more forms, fairly representative and commonly available; the chordate types, for example, are Balanoglossus, Ascidia, lancelet, lamprey, a small shark, salmon, Ceratodus, frog, lizard, pigeon, and rabbit. The second volume also contains a discussion of the "mutual relationships of the chordata" and "of the twelve phyla" (the titles of the two illustrative diagrams are unfortunately transposed). The last seventy pages are devoted to Geographic Distribution, the Philosophy and History of Zoölogy, and Modern Literature, seven of the sixty writers recommended being American. The index is well arranged and nearly complete.

Actual errors are gratifyingly few, the most serious, perhaps, being the ascription of a "posterior cornu" to the "lateral ventricle" of the rabbit. The frequent recurrence of "cœcum" for cæcum exemplifies the desirability of discarding diphthongs as in economy, equator, and aqueduct. As to terminology, aside from the consistent use of *dorsal* and *ventral*, of *precaval* and *postcaval*, and of *neuron* (for cerebro-spinal axis), the most notable feature is the replacement of ventricle by *cœle*, and the designation of the encephalic cavities by the compounds *mesocœle*, *paracœle*, etc., terms which, if we are to credit the declarations and vaticinations of a recent "minority report on nomenclature," are "generally repulsive to educated men" and calculated to "bring anatomy into disgrace." Yet even those who may share these gloomy views respecting a single feature of the present work will probably admit this to be highly authoritative and accurate; it is unquestionably the most recent and comprehensive text-book of zoölogy in the English language.

Introduction to Algebra. By G. Chrystal. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1898. 8vo, pp. 412+25.

This algebra for beginners, by the well-known author of a highly praised two-volume advanced treatise on the elementary parts of this branch of mathematics (so we must describe it to avoid confusion with the so-called "Higher Algebra," or theory of invariants), is distinguished by two features which place it among the text-books of the new type. The first, which is nothing at all new in oral teaching, though, perhaps, novel in print, is the extensive illustration of the subject by Cartesian geometry, which, far from diverting the student into a different subject, simply sheds upon diagrams consisting of arrays of letters a flood of light from other diagrams in which continuity is an iconic character. The other innovation lies in abandoning the ancient severity of the mathematical style of writing, which preserved such a haughty reticence as to the objective point at which the discussion was driving, and in consenting to take the student frankly into the author's confidence, as far as the *rationale* of algebraic work goes. The essence of the mathematics is always brought into bold relief. At the same time its use, as well as the limits of this use, are made thoroughly familiar by copious special cases. All this renders the book excessively bulky, notwithstanding its being restricted to the very minimum of what a primer of algebra must contain. This restriction is in part wholesome in itself, in part it is the price which is paid for pretty thorough instruction in the topics that are entered upon. After all, everybody who has mastered it agrees that algebra is a great help to every man who thinks; but what is the good of studying it unless sufficient facility in its application and manipulation be acquired to make it a handy tool?

We do not say a better book could not be made. This one is not founded on as deep a psychology as could be desired—witness the author's remark that "the difficulty that untrained minds find in algebra arises simply from deficiency in the capacity of taking pains." In several instances the use of technical terms is not quite as careful as could be wished, though there is nothing to match the author's calling the absolute, or modular, value of an algebraic quantity, a *scalar* quantity! If quaternion phraseology is to be used, it is a *tensor*. The book contains upwards of two thousand exercises, to which a Key is provided.

Études de Littérature Européenne. Par Joseph Texte. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1898. 12mo, pp. 304.

M. Joseph Texte made himself known three years ago by a work, crowned by the Academy, on 'Rousseau and the Beginnings of Literary Cosmopolitanism.' He now presents himself with divers "studies" in his hand, which he has since then (presumably) contributed to the journals of the day—studies of literature in various countries. Desirous of giving chase to what Mme. de Staël was the first to call "l'esprit européen," he has wisely prepared himself by acquiring other languages than that of France, and his most active hunting is done in England.

M. Texte writes on the large general subjects of the comparative history of literatures, of Italian influence on the French Renaissance, of German influence on French Romanticism, of the literary hegemony of France; and he writes also on the large individual subjects of Sir Thomas Browne (whom he depicts less ably than Mr. Leslie Stephen has done), of Keats and neo-Hellenism, of Wordsworth—basing the greater part of his paper on the remarkable work on Wordsworth's early life published two years ago by M. Émile Legouis (who, in return, in the translation of his book, speaks of "the able article" of M. Texte), and of Mrs. Browning, on whom he passes the following judgment, by which he himself may be judged: "On peut dire sans crainte qu'elle est le poète le plus philosophe de notre époque, en même temps que l'un des plus exquis et des plus rares par le talent." In order to write on these topics, he has read a great deal—that is the precise statement of the impression his writings produce, and it is in large measure a creditable impression; it is not, nowadays, every man that writes who reads. But to read *in order* to write—that creates precisely the sort of work we have here; a book entirely derived from books; a book containing little acute personal observation of human life, little vivid personal expression of human emotion, little distinct originality of outlook, but exhibiting, in connection with ardent moral beliefs, a conscientious comparison of other men's observations, and other men's feelings, and other men's points of view; and a not unjust estimate of them. This is, in fine, one of the books of which such countless numbers lie on our tables, the careful and serious work of "a man of letters."

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